

MAY

YOL 33 #2

PRICE 20 CENTS

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1901

The CHAUTAUQUAN

*A Magazine for
Self-education*



*A Magazine for
Self-education*



THE RIVALRY
OF NATIONS

PRIMITIVE INDUSTRIAL
CIVILIZATION of CHINA

HINDU BELIEFS

COURTING AND
NESTING DAYS

A PRIVATE INDEX AND
HOW TO MAKE IT

A READING JOURNEY IN
THE ORIENT

GENERAL OFFICES

CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY



CLEVELAND, OHIO



Chautauqua

A System of Popular Education

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN,

A Monthly Magazine for Self-Education.

FRANK CHAPIN BRAY, Editor.

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CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY:

BUREAU OF PUBLICATION: WILLIAM S. BAILEY, Director,
CLEVELAND, OHIO.

Entered according to Act of Congress, May, 1901, by CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY, in the office of the Librarian of Congress, Washington, D. C.

Yearly Subscription, \$2.00. Single Copies, 20c.

Entered at Cleveland Post-Office as Second-class Mail Matter.

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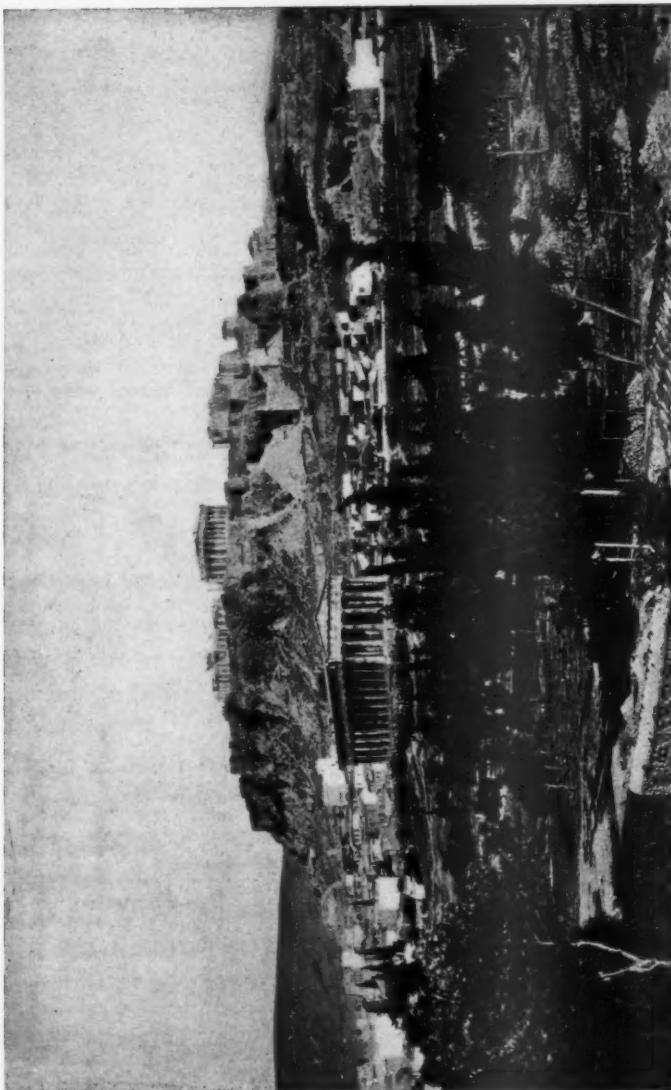
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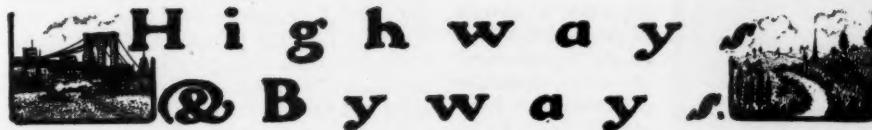
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VOL. XXXIII.

MAY, 1901.

No. 2.



WHAT next in China? The imperial government has yielded to the concert of the powers in the matter of punishment, and all the high officials condemned to the death penalty in the joint note either have been or are to be executed. Twelve men were named in the note, but Prince Tuan and his chief accomplice, Duke Lan, were to have their sentences commuted to degradation and banishment. Three of the twelve were dead, but their names were inserted for the "moral effect" of the sentences upon the multitude. Some were to be permitted to commit suicide, and only three were to be publicly decapitated. In February, as the readers know, Hsu Chen Yu and Ki Hain, high officials who had led the Boxers in the attacks upon the legations, were beheaded at Peking upon the very spot where, last summer, they had put to death four members of the foreign office for favoring the aliens and seeking to protect them. Field Marshal Waldersee had planned a military expedition into the interior to capture the court and bring it to Peking, but the executions caused him to postpone the projected raid indefinitely. The United States would not have joined such an expedition.

The Chinese government has submitted to another demand—the suspension of examinations for the civil service in the districts where foreigners have been assailed and maltreated. The question is therefore asked in diplomatic and political circles, What is to be the next move of the allied powers? There are disquieting reports that more blood will be demanded—executions of provincial officials who aided or led the Boxers, but it is understood that the United States, Russia, and Japan will oppose such demands. But an agreement must be reached upon pecuniary indemnities. What is to be the aggregate amount, and how is it to be apportioned? How is China to pay it? Sir Robert

Hart believes that \$300,000,000 is the maximum figure China is able to raise. It is feared that Germany will demand extravagant indemnities, and compel China to make territorial concessions in lieu of cash. But would this be approved by the concert? Would it not violate the principle accepted at the outset, the integrity of China and equal opportunities to all in her markets?

Foreseeing this complication, Secretary Hay addressed a note to the powers suggesting an agreement against private settlements with China and against the seeking of franchises or territory as compensation. The danger of land grabbing is by no means removed, and it will be the special task of the United States to enforce moderation in the pecuniary demands upon China. Russia has practically annexed Manchuria (though she protests the occupation is only temporary) and will support this government in preventing further alienation of territory. The Manchurian question has, indeed, overshadowed every other, and there have been sensational reports of serious differences threatening the collapse of the concert, and even war between Russia and Japan. It is stated that existing commercial rights and privileges will be respected by Russia, and the "door" will be kept "open." A very difficult problem is to be dealt with, and both the good faith and the statesmanship of the powers will be put to a severe test. The United States will be represented by Commissioner W. W. Rockhill, Minister Conger having secured a leave of absence and contemplating a long vacation (some believe retirement from the position). Mr. Rockhill favors leniency.

The Russo-Chinese treaty, the subject of agitation and apprehension for weeks, has finally been withdrawn. Owing to the oppo-

sition of the powers and the belligerent attitude of Japan (which even at this writing is apparently ready to declare war on Russia in order to prevent the annexation by her of Manchuria) the Chinese government found the courage to decline acceptance of the treaty, even as modified by Russia.



MAJOR-GENERAL A. R.
CHAFFEE,

Commanding the American
Troops in Peking.

desired a *modus vivendi* which would have enabled her to turn the province gradually over to the civil and military control of China. That having failed, the statement continues, matters must remain *in statu quo*. The intention to retire "can only be carried out when the normal situation is completely restored, and the central government established at Peking is strong enough to afford the necessary guarantees against a recurrence of disorder and assaults upon the property of Russian subjects." The statement concludes with these somewhat laconic, if not ironical words: "While the Russian government maintains its present organization in Manchuria, to preserve order in the vicinity of the broad frontiers of Russia, . . . it will quietly await the further course of events."

The general construction, and the correct one, put upon these words is that, though the treaty had to be abandoned, Manchuria will remain indefinitely under Russian control. Russia will decide when pacification is complete enough to permit evacuation—and that decision may never be reached. We must remember England's experience in Egypt. There is no *practical* change in the situation in the far East. Manchuria is now under Russian rule, and will probably never revert to China. Will the powers be satisfied with their barren diplomatic victory?

Will Japan acquiesce? Time will tell.

To Mark Twain's sojourn in Vienna a few years ago we are indebted for one of his most graphic descriptive articles, in which with great fidelity he reported a cyclonic session of the reichsrath of Austria-Hungary. The strife of parties has become so bitter in that misnamed "deliberative assembly" that all the rules of parliamentary order have been violated; even the principles of common decency have been disregarded. Day after day and week after week a small group of vociferating and desk-pounding delegates has been able to obstruct completely the progress of business. The utmost political enmity exists between the pan-Germans and the Czechs. The Hapsburg dual monarchy is bound together by the frailest of personal ties, and as the aged Emperor-King Franz Josef nears the bound of life, the divisive forces in the realm gain strength. The Germans are captivated by the idea of an all-Teutonic empire, and are bent upon having the German lands and peoples of Austria annexed to the empire of Kaiser Wilhelm II. The Czechs of Bohemia have the union of the Slavs at heart. They favor a Russian alliance for



QUITE AT HOME.

BRITISH AND GERMAN ALLIES:—"Hi! What are you doing there?"

RUSSIAN COSSACK:—"I'm the man in possession! Are you going to turn me out?"

BOTH (hesitating):—"N-N-No. No. We only asked."

RUSSIAN COSSACK:—"Then you know." [Goes on smoking.]

—London Punch.

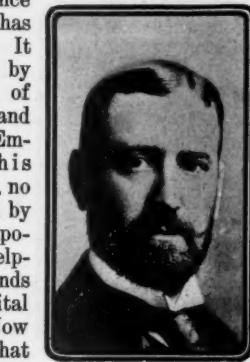
the present, and the ultimate amalgamation of Slavic Austria with the tsar's domain. Hungary, again, feels quite competent to manage her own affairs, and there is yet an "Italy unredeemed" about the head of the Adriatic whose inhabitants would gladly exchange the Austrian tax-gatherer for the one from Rome. At a recent uproarious session of the reichsrath a noisy Czech member named Silenz taunted his German colleagues with squinting toward Germany. At this Herr Stein shouted back, "We do not squint, we look; we are as eager to join Germany as you Russia," following this with the frank avowal that his party hoped for a consolidation with the German empire. Herr Silenz declared that the Triple Alliance was a failure so far as Austria was concerned. She would have been better off with Russia at her back. "Say openly that you wish to belong to Russia," demanded the German, and when Silenz protested his patriotism, Stein remarked, "Any one remaining a good patriot in Austria now is a fool."



While the Triple Alliance, which Bismarck forged with so much labor and which proved so useful to him in his plans for the aggrandizement of Prussia and less directly of Germany, is thus threatened with the loss of one of its members, a fresh element of disintegration is developing in another quarter. It is generally conceded that as long as Franz Josef survives there will be no disturbance of the present status, but the advanced age of

the venerable monarch is stimulating active speculation as to the probable rearrangements which his death will precipitate. The accession of a young, energetic, and ambitious sovereign to the throne of Italy has given a new turn to the policy of that kingdom. The alliance with the Teuton has served its turn. It served Bismarck by tying one hand of France in 1870, and the first Victor Emmanuel took his profit when Rome, no longer garrisoned by the troops of Napoleon III., fell helplessly into his hands to become the capital of United Italy. Now there are signs that Italy would prefer an alliance with France and Russia to the old compact with the

two kaisers. Latin in race and Catholic in religion, the kingdom would seem to have more in common with the republic than with the German reich. It is no wonder then that the plan of the Italian government, as just made public, to have the spring naval maneuvers in French waters this year is seized upon by alert observers as a significant indication of friendly feeling which may ripen into a definite alliance between the two Latin powers on the Mediterranean.



ROBERT S. McCORMICK,
New United States Minister
to Austria.



STOP THIEF! STOP THIEF!
Don't they need a bigger policeman on that beat?
—Minneapolis Journal.

In these days of wars and rumors of wars, it is interesting to note that the Permanent Court of Arbitration, which the convention at The Hague provided for in July, 1899, has been completely organized. The forty-nine members appointed represent fifteen nations. Austria-Hungary, Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, The Netherlands, Roumania, Russia, and the United States have four members each; Sweden-Norway and Japan have two members each; Spain has three members; and Portugal and Denmark have one member each. The first secretary of the court is J. J. Rochussen. The second secretary of the court is Jonkherr W. Roell. The members of the court from the United States are Chief-Judge Melville W. Fuller, Attorney-General John W. Griggs, and United States Circuit Judge George Gray.

Ex-President Benjamin Harrison, who recently died at his home in Indianapolis, was

a member of this court. His successor has not yet been named.

The net result of the protracted diplomatic negotiations concerning the Nicaragua ship canal is the revival of the Clayton-Bulwer convention of 1850, and the recognition by our government of its binding force and quality. The attempt to secure a modification thereof has failed completely. The Hay-Pauncefote treaty would have enabled the United States to construct, operate, and control the projected isthmian canal, subject to the sole requirement of absolute neutrality at all times. But our senate was opposed

to the limitations which that treaty imposed upon our control, and demanded an "all-American" canal—that is, a canal which the United States might close to an enemy or prospective enemy in time of war or apprehension of international complications.

It will be recalled that the senate radically amended the Hay-Pauncefote instrument. It adopted a proviso reserving to the United States the right to protect the canal by its own forces, and to maintain public order. It eliminated the clause requiring the adhesion and sanction of the treaty by the other civilized powers of the world. Finally, it inserted a clause abrogating so much of the Clayton-Bulwer convention as was not expressly modified, re-enacted, or superseded by the new treaty.

While these amendments were somewhat ambiguous in their phraseology, it was generally understood that their effect, as well as their purpose, was to do away with the obligation of *neutrality*, and to convert the canal into a "part of the American sea coast line," as the phrase is. The British government adopted this popular construction of the amendments and, after allowing the Hay-Pauncefote treaty to lapse by its own time limit for ratification, communicated to our state department its reasons for refusing to accept the instrument in its new form. The statement was signed by Lord Lansdowne, the minister of foreign affairs, and

was friendly, reasonable, and argumentative.

Lord Lansdowne reminds the state department that when it originally requested Great Britain to consent to a modification of the Clayton-Bulwer convention, it distinctly declared that it only desired such changes as, "without affecting the general principle [neutrality of the canal] therein declared, would enable the great object in view to be accomplished for the benefit of the commerce of the world." He further states that, in view of the failure of the Anglo-Canadian-American commission to settle the outstanding difficulties between the two governments, Great Britain was at first disinclined to make any gratuitous concession at all, but that finally it resolved to subscribe to Secretary Hay's proposals "as a signal proof of its friendly disposition." He proceeds to analyze the senate amendments and to show that they are inconsistent with the neutral character which has always been sought for the canal. Great Britain, he concludes by saying, is ready to consider in a spirit of comity any reasonable amendment of the original convention, but the neutrality principle is deemed essential, and will not be waived or surrendered.

It is evident that the whole question will have to be restudied. The administration would be entirely willing to agree upon a neutral canal under American control, but the senate may decline to ratify any treaty short of that guaranteeing an all-American canal. Several senators favor the passage of a resolution declaring the Clayton-Bulwer convention abrogated. Such a step would, of course, be regarded as unfriendly and



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GEORGE VON L. MEYER,
New Ambassador to Italy.



CHANGING REMEDIES.

—Minneapolis Tribune.

improper by Great Britain, but she would do nothing to prevent us from constructing a canal without reference to her and to Europe's desire for neutrality. The question for Americans to consider is whether abrogation of the old convention without the consent of the other contracting party would be consistent with national honor and good faith, and whether vital national interests really demand the repudiation of the principle upon which the Suez canal is operated to universal satisfaction. The great subject will have ample consideration in the next congress.

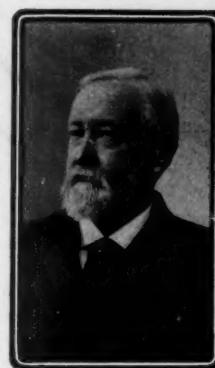


Recent and apparently reliable information indicates that the sale of the Danish West Indies to this country is about to be successfully accomplished. The islands—St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix—belong to the Virgin Island group lying to the east of Porto Rico. They have an area of about one hundred and twenty-five square miles, and a population of the usual West Indian sort, of about thirty-five thousand. The successful termination of negotiations between the United States and Denmark for the transfer of these three specks of the Lesser Antilles brings a long and interesting chapter of our international relations to a close. It was in 1867 that William H. Seward, then secretary of state, signed a treaty with Denmark transferring the islands to the sovereignty of the United States, the price being fixed at \$7,500,000. The negotiations had been conducted at Copenhagen, and were kept secret. Commissions representing the contracting nations were sent to the islands, the leading inhabitants were assembled at the government house, the proclamation of the king was read, announcing the transfer and bidding farewell to his island subjects, and the whole affair would have gone through according to the program had not a merchant who was enjoying a valuable monopoly filed a vigorous protest, and demanded that St. Thomas be made a free port as a condition of the transfer. The Danish commissioners were inclined to defer the ratification of the bargain until they had made an effort to secure the concession from the United States. The negotiations were suspended, and the whole matter was referred to Washington. Secretary Seward was unable to officially recognize the Danish commissioners, who were plainly exceeding their authority in endeavoring to continue the negotiations at Washington, but the matter became public, and when Senator Sumner of Massachusetts arrayed himself against the project, the negotiations

were suspended, in spite of the fact that a large majority of the inhabitants of the island had voted in favor of the transfer.

It was not strange that Denmark felt aggrieved at the failure of the treaty, especially as the price agreed upon was a generous one, and the islands had for many years been a heavy drain upon the treasury at Copenhagen. It is stated that the transfer of the islands will cost this country about 12,000,000 kroner, or \$3,240,000, which is less than one-half of what Secretary Seward agreed to pay for them. The Danish parliamentary committee which recently reported a bill favoring the sale advised

the imposition as a condition that the people of the islands be permitted to vote on the question of the transfer, and that the sale be contingent upon a favorable vote. A St. Thomas newspaper has recently declared that the islanders "do not want to be sold," but the early disposition of the islands to some other power is practically assured, as Denmark is wearied with the financial burden resulting from the possession of these dependencies which are of no particular value to her, and which may be of great strategic value to some other nation. It should be stated that the newspaper which has been shouting "We do not want to be sold," is supported financially by a Dane who enjoys a rich monopoly. It is edited by a colored man.



THE LATE
BENJAMIN HARRISON.



Not only the professed friend of the negro, but all who have given serious thought to the problem of his political and social condition in America, have learned to look for hopeful signs in the annual reports of President Booker T. Washington of the Tuskegee (Alabama) Normal and Industrial Institute. In addition to the record of accessions to the property of the school and the constant extension of its scope within the past year—it now numbers 1,164 students and 88 officers and teachers, giving training in 26 industries—the negro leader gives emphatic expression to his theory of the education suitable for his race at the present juncture.

He thinks his people have not yet reached the point where mere book-learning will meet their needs. The colored man must not pursue the ideal of an academic education to the neglect of the humble opportunities of self-support which lie right about his door. In his plain Anglo-Saxon, "time has been lost and money spent in vain, because too many have not been educated with the idea of fitting them to do well, things that they could get to do. . . . In too many cases where mere literary education alone has been given the negro youth, it has resulted in an exaggerated estimate of his importance in the world and an increase of wants which his education has not fitted him to supply." Continuing, he deals very sensibly with the common question, Should not the negro be encouraged to prepare himself for any station in life that any other race fills?

"I would say, yes; but the surest way for the negro to reach the highest positions is to fill well at the present time what are termed by the world the more humble positions. This will give him a foundation upon which to stand while securing what is called the more exalted positions. The negro has the right to study law, but in the end we shall succeed soonest in producing a number of successful lawyers by preparing first a large number of intelligent, thrifty farmers, mechanics, and housekeepers to support the lawyers. The want of proper direction of the use of the negro's education results in tempting too many to live mainly by their wits, without producing anything that is of real value to the world, or to live merely by politics. The negro has the right to enter politics, but I believe that his surest road to political preferment that will mean anything is to make himself of such supreme service to the community in which he lives that political honors will in time be conferred upon him.

"Almost from the beginning this institution has kept in mind the giving of thorough mental and religious training, and at the same time, along with it, such industrial training as would enable the student to appreciate the dignity of labor and become self-supporting and valuable as a producing factor, keeping in mind the occupations open in the south for employment."



The personality of Emilio Aguinaldo, the Filipino leader made prisoner on March 23, has been much discussed. It is well established that he is not a half-breed, but the son of native Filipinos (Malays), his father occupying an office corresponding to mayor of a town. His education was obtained in Cavite, the Dominican University in Manila, and a Jesuit normal school. He was twenty-five years old when he became mayor of Cavite, and two years later led the Filipino insurrection of 1896, which forced Spain to promise a large indemnity. The exact relations between Aguinaldo and the United States up to the date of armed conflict a little over two years ago will undoubtedly be dispassionately revealed in the course of

time. At the age of thirty-two he is a prisoner of international note whose capture by stratagem makes a military hero of General Funston of the United States Volunteers.



A bulletin recently issued by the Department of Labor contains a statement of the prices of commodities and rates of wages in Manila. The table of prices shows the retail prices of about ninety articles in common use in the homes of workmen, distinction being made between articles used by the whites, by the natives, and by the Chinese. The prices quoted are in gold, and are just half the prices in silver, which is used in the actual transactions. Among other commodities, bread is listed at four cents a pound, coffee not roasted twenty cents a pound, eggs twenty cents a dozen, bananas four cents a dozen, oranges five cents a dozen, turkeys three dollars each, brown sugar seven and one-half cents a pound, tobacco twenty-five cents a pound, potatoes five cents a pound, and European matches one cent a box.

The table of rates of wages shows the wages paid for each occupation in 664 establishments, covering sixty-nine distinct industries. The whole number of employees in these establishments is 22,155 — 187 whites, 17,317 natives, and 4,651 Chinese. The rate of wages is given in gold. White master bakers work twelve hours a day, and receive forty dollars a month and their meals; Chinese and native workmen are paid from four to nine dollars a month, besides their meals. White barbers are paid a dollar a day, while natives receive half as much. Native master bookbinders are paid one dollar for ten hours' work; ordinary workmen in the same line receive from twelve and one-half to fifty cents a day, including board. Master carpenters are paid a dollar and a half for a day's work. In the printing offices native compositors work eight hours a day for from six to seventeen and one-half dollars a month; white master printers are paid thirty dollars a month.

It is stated that in Manila organization and specialization do not exist to such an extent as in the United States, and in many establishments a workman performs any class of work he may be called upon to do. In general, however, the data are comparable to like data relating to similar occupations in the United States.



According to authoritative announcements, the government of Canada has decided to nationalize the telegraphs and telephones of

the Dominion. The business elements are said to be nearly unanimous in support of this reform. The government counts on an annual surplus of some seven million dollars, and its income is increasing under the unusual prosperity of the country. It has therefore become possible to take the step contemplated for years, but heretofore precluded by lack of available funds. The government already operates some small telegraphic lines, and not unsuccessfully. The telephones, if taken over at the same time as the telegraph, will be placed in the hands of the respective municipalities, to be managed by them. It is hardly necessary to add that the employees of the companies are anxious to become the servants of the state, knowing, as they do, that from the government they would secure better terms and greater consideration.

Canada is only following the example of Great Britain in this respect. The telegraph was nationalized in England about thirty years ago, and while there have been complaints of inefficiency, red tape, and lack of progressive spirit on the part of the Post-Office Department, which controls it, there is no agitation in favor of a return to operation by private companies.



The Maryland legislature, called together in special session for the purpose, has passed a new elections act, radically changing the suffrage laws of the state and disfranchising at least forty thousand citizens. The Republican members of the legislature and the Republican and Independent newspapers have distinctly charged that the object and undisguised motive of the Democratic majority, directed by Ex-Senator Gorman, were to wipe out the Republican majorities of 1896 and 1900, and to transfer the state back into the Democratic column, from which the free silver issue had removed it.

Only illiterates are disfranchised by the new act, but not through a direct educational test. No provision in the law makes illiteracy a disqualification in terms. But heretofore the Maryland official ballot has contained certain symbols and pictorial designations which enabled the illiterate voter to infer the political affiliation of the several candidates. By making his mark in a circle at the top, alongside the party emblem, he could "vote straight" for a party ticket. The new law does away with all emblems and symbols, and requires that the names of the candidates be printed in alpha-

betical order, the party designation to follow the name. It is obvious that only those who can read will be able to vote ballots of this kind, and as there are believed to be about forty or fifty thousand illiterate voters in the state, the effect will be their total disfranchisement, until they acquire the rudiments of "education."

There is some doubt of the constitutionality of this act, but in principle it does not differ from the laws of eastern states which impose an educational tax. It is certain that the majority of those the act is aimed at are colored, but there is no discrimination on the ground of race or color, and no "grandfather clause" in the act to make the intention glaring and manifest. Unquestionably the act is not as flagrant as that of North Carolina or of Mississippi, but it has been fiercely denounced, nevertheless, because Maryland is really a northern state, and there is no danger there of "black domination," the negroes constituting but one-fifth or so of the population. The propriety of enforcing the penalty prescribed by the fourteenth amendment—the reduction of congressional representation—against states which disfranchise certain classes of voters has again been discussed with some animation, but at the late session congress indicated no disposition to give this constitutional injunction any serious consideration.



The great billion-dollar steel combination is now an accomplished fact. There was some opposition among the minority stockholders, but the syndicate managers succeeded in overcoming it. On April 1 it was announced that holders of the following percentages of the entire outstanding amounts of the preferred and common stocks of the constituent corporations had accepted the offers made to them respectively: Federal Steel Company, 97 per cent of the preferred and 96 per cent of the common; National Steel Company, 97 and 98; National Tube, 98 and 93; American Steel and Wire, 97 and 92; American Tin Plate, 94 and 99; Ameri-



EMILIO AGUINALDO,
The Captured Filipino
Leader.

can Steel Hoop, 97 and 98; American Steel Sheet, 97 and 94. This, in each case, was more than the amount required by the law of New Jersey, and the scheme therefore became operative.

One of the most serious features of the



PHILANDER C. KNOX,
New Attorney-General of
the United States.

has a vital bearing on the question of the possibility of competition with the trust on the part of the smaller steel concerns that have been excluded and left independent. Professor Jenks and other authorities have asserted that one of the principal and illegitimate sources of trust power is rate discrimination obtained from the railroads. That such discrimination is systematically practised is often denied, but the details are not taken seriously. What opportunities and possibilities in the way of favoritism in rates this identity of ownership or "community of interest" between the railroad managers and the steel corporation at once suggest! How can there be any fair competition under the circumstances, and what chance will the independent companies have either in the home market or abroad?

Whether the combination will effect substantial economies and share them with the consumer the event will show. Meantime no state threatens adverse legislation except Minnesota, which fears that it will not realize the natural advantages of its abundant ore supplies. But the agitation among the legislators of that state will probably come to naught, and, as we observed last month, the trust will be judged by its fruits and practical policy. It is already evident that its treatment of labor will be rational and liberal. It is understood that Mr. Morgan has suggested to President Shaffer of the

Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers the organization of a permanent joint board of arbitration for the settlement of all questions that may arise between the trust's employees and the management. The numerous branches or lodges of the association have been requested to vote upon the proposition, and it is practically certain to be approved. Mr. Morgan is represented as willing to accord full recognition to responsible, well-organized unions, and as realizing that peace with labor is essential to the success and prosperity of the consolidated industry.

In this connection it should be stated that Mr. Morgan is credited with having avoided a strike in the anthracite coal region. The United Mine Workers demanded recognition, and the operators absolutely refused to extend it, though they voluntarily extended for a year the ten per cent advance in the miners' wages which was granted last October as the result of "political" considerations. Mr. Morgan informally conferred with President Mitchell, Father Phillips (a stanch friend of the miners), and a delegation of business men from the anthracite region, and assured them that, if the United Mine Workers perfected the organization and prevented local strikes and disturbances during the next year, full recognition would be accorded it at the end of that brief probationary period. President Mitchell himself has intimated that "partial recognition" has been secured and that the miners have every reason to be satisfied with the prospects. The coal properties and the coal-carrying roads are now controlled by Mr. Morgan and his associates.



We have discussed in recent numbers several decisions in "labor" cases, which illustrate the difficulty of applying in the United States the principles loosely described as socialistic to municipal and state functions. Two other noteworthy decisions require attention. They were rendered by the highest court of New York. One annulled a law passed some years ago to secure the payment by municipalities and contractors doing public work of the "prevailing rate of wages," a phrase which was understood to mean the rate of wages demanded and generally enforced by organized labor. This was pronounced to be unconstitutional because it violated the home-rule provisions of the organic law. The legislature, the court ruled, has no power to dictate to municipalities what wages they shall pay to labor, or what terms they shall make with contractors. The second of the decisions alluded

to invalidated an act requiring in all municipal work the use of granite dressed in the state, and prohibiting the purchase and use on such work of stone dressed outside New York. In addition to the objection that this act also is an improper interference with local self-government, the court finds that it is a regulation of commerce between the states, which the legislature has no power to make. The citizens of any and all states of the union, it says, have the right to the markets of New York for the sale of their products, so long as the product is the subject of legitimate commerce. State restriction upon the freedom of interstate commerce is void, whether the restriction is direct or indirect, whether it results from interference with individuals or with municipalities.

It is hardly necessary to point out that in Great Britain or any of the British colonies such legislation would be open to no constitutional objection. In this country, and especially at the present time, when there is a pronounced reaction against so-called "labor" legislation, unions can expect no "recognition" from the state, and must depend on the economic and moral power of solid and strong organization. They are, indeed, beginning to realize this, and, in consequence, demanding less and less protection and favor from the national, state, and municipal governments.



A decision of the most far-reaching character, affecting all public service corporations in their relation to municipal authorities and legislative bodies, has recently been rendered by the United States Supreme Court. The question was as to the legal right of a city council to change or reduce by ordinance rates fixed in a previous ordinance granted by itself or its predecessors to a corporation undertaking the supply of a "public utility." Suppose an exclusive franchise is conferred upon a water, gas, or other public service corporation, for a term of years, and the ordinance making this grant provides for a certain rate or charge for the service: may the grantor subsequently order a reduction of such rate or charge, and if so, within what limits? There is a statute in Illinois distinctly authorizing cities, towns, and other corporate bodies to regulate and reduce the rates of water companies, irrespective of previous ordinances, provided the newly-imposed rates are fair and reasonable. The supreme court of the state had sustained the constitutionality of this act in a strong and

lucid decision in the case of a Chicago suburban water company. It had held that, notwithstanding the insertion of a provision in a grant fixing a rate for a term of years, the local authorities might, in a subsequent ordinance, reduce the rate. No contract, according to the Illinois court, is necessary to create an obligation on the part of a public service corporation to supply water at a reasonable rate, for that rests upon it as a duty. The court continued: "A rate or price reasonable and just when fixed may in the future become so unreasonably high that the exactation of such rate or price is but an extortion. The duty of the corporation does not, however, change, but remains the same—that is, to exact only reasonable compensation. . . . Whenever the evil of extortion exists, the power to eradicate it may be successfully invoked." The fundamental principle is that corporations, and especially public service corporations, are created by the state for the good of the community, and no legislature can indefinitely waive the right of control and regulation.

The United States Supreme Court (Justices White, Brewer, and Brown dissenting, however) agrees with this reasoning, and rules that a rate provision is not a contract, and that a grant of an exclusive privilege is subject to revision in the interests of the public. Against an unreasonably low rate or confiscation of profits equity would always afford relief, hence capital is not menaced by this significant decision.



The National Civic Federation, under whose auspices successful conferences have been held on trusts and industrial arbitration, has issued a call for another conference, to be held at Buffalo in May, for the thorough discussion of the difficult question of taxation, which is now pressing for settlement in a number of states, and which, owing to the growth of corporations and new forms of personal property, is becoming more and more complex every year. It is notorious that personal property escapes taxation to a startling degree, and that real estate is compelled to sustain heavy burdens on account of the failure to levy taxes uniformly and equitably on all classes of property. It is also well known that until lately valuable public franchises have been permitted to swell the revenue of private corporations, the communities conferring them realizing little or no benefit from what is recognized to be a public asset. The taxation of banks, trust companies, and insurance companies of

all kinds is also a serious problem, and not a local one. The tax policy of a state often determines the attitude of capital and manufacturing enterprise towards it, and what some states lose others gain. Uniform tax laws are probably impossible, but agreement upon a few fundamental principles may not be an unreasonable expectation.

From many indications two reforms may be regarded as "coming" and inevitable. One is the heavy taxation of franchises, and the other and more far-reaching one is "local option" in taxation. Governor Odell of New York, an "orthodox" Republican, is a convert to the idea of the complete separation of state from local taxation, and of

permitting counties to decide for themselves what property to tax and what to exempt. Bills embodying the same principles have been introduced in the Illinois, Texas, Kansas, and other legislatures. But the greatest step in this direction has been taken by Colorado. The constitution of that state requires the taxation of all kinds of property, but the legislature has adopted an amendment — which is to be referred to the people for acceptance or rejection — providing for "home rule" in the premises. The amendment authorizes any county, on petition of one hundred taxpayers, to vote not oftener than once in four years on the question of exempting personal property and landed improvements from local taxation, and of deriving revenue solely from taxation of land values, of so-called economic rent.

This is clearly an approach to the single tax advocated by the followers of Mr. Henry George. New Zealand has introduced it, and a Colorado legislative commission headed by State Senator Bucklin has studied the operation of the plan in Australasia, and has urged it upon the legislature. It is obvious that home rule in taxation would afford opportunity for wide experimentation, and that many plans now academically discussed would probably be tried here and there.

A few weeks ago an old-age pension act

went into effect in New South Wales, one of the states of the Australian federation. This act is even more liberal than that of New Zealand. It provides for a pension of ten shillings a week to every person of sixty-five, married or single, who has no means of support. The applicant must have lived twenty-five years in one of the Australian colonies, and at least fifteen years of these in New South Wales. The annual cost of the system is estimated at between \$1,000,000 and \$1,500,000, but this amount will not represent a new addition to the tax burden of the colony, for a great deal is to be saved by doing away with public institutions for aged paupers, now rendered unnecessary.

It is a remarkable fact that this law was passed almost without opposition. No political party, no association, and no prominent newspaper objected to it. The New Zealand example had something to do with this, but it is admitted that all Australia is affected by the new spirit of social and altruistic legislation, so that even the Conservatives there favor or accept measures which in the United States would be violently denounced as paternalistic and dangerous to individual liberty and the rights of property.

Taking the world at large, three governments have now adopted the scheme of old-age pensions. Denmark is the third. Great Britain and France are agitating the subject and regarding it as "within practical politics." The principle behind it is that any man or woman who has led an industrious and honest life and has served society for forty-five or fifty years has earned support and security for his or her old age as a right, not as alms, and that a pension is merely the discharge by society of a debt incurred. In this country no one is advocating old-age pensions for all deserving poor, but it is significant that railroad corporations and other large employers of labor are voluntarily creating pension funds at their own expense for their workmen, in the belief that such provision, by removing fear of destitution in old age, induces greater care, fidelity, and efficiency.



On the 1st of January, this year, the *Morning Herald*, of Sydney, New South Wales, issued a "Commonwealth Number" to commemorate the Australian federation. Among the statistics presented, those relating to education are most interesting:

"All the states of the commonwealth have a state system of education, which is secular and compulsory. Throughout Australia education has been a burning

political question, but every colony has abolished subsidies to denominational schools, Western Australia in 1895 being the last one to do so. The statutory school age of each colony is as follows: New South Wales, over 6 and under 14 years; Victoria, over 6 and under 13; Queensland, over 6 and under 12; South Australia, over 7 and under 13; Western Australia, over 6 and under 14; and Tasmania, over 7 and under 13. Education is free in Queensland, Victoria, and South Australia. In New South Wales, Western Australia, and Tasmania small fees are charged. These, however, are not enforced where the parents cannot afford to pay them. During the year 1899 there was an average attendance of nearly half a million children in the schools of the six colonies that will form the states of the commonwealth. The exact figures were 426,436. The net enrolment was over 600,000. At the end of the year the public schools of Australia numbered 6,666, and there were over 14,000 teachers."

After tracing the development of the typical public school system of New South Wales, the principal features of the law now in force are stated as being:

Non-sectarian, but general religious teaching; all teachers and officers in the public schools are civil servants; in cases of poverty free education is granted; a public school may be established whenever an average attendance of twenty pupils can be secured; in sparsely-settled districts, provisional, half-time, and house-to-house schools may be established; the teaching of English and Australian history is obligatory; parents neglecting to send their children to school may be arrested and fined; secondary education is provided for, and it is possible for bright pupils to win free scholarships, and to attend high schools and the University of Sydney.

The result of this act has been a wonderful development of the school system, as the following statement shows:

"At the end of the year 1899 there were 2,693 schools, containing 2,909 departments and 4,884 teachers. During that year 112 schools were established, comprising 9 public, 57 provisional, 32 half-time, 2 house-to-house, and 12 evening schools. Besides this 35 schools were reopened, 27 provisional and 4 half-time schools were raised to the rank of public schools, and 21 half-time and 1 house-to-house school were raised to the rank of provisional schools, while 13 public and 15 provisional schools were reduced to the rank of provisional schools. It will thus be seen that the provision for education is on a sliding scale with the requirements of the people. It is also to the teacher's interest to keep up the size and standard of his school, for according to the number on the roll and the efficiency of the pupils are his status and salary."

"It is estimated that the mean population of the colony in 1899 was 1,345,000, and the population between the age of 6 and 14 years was 253,212. Of this number 201,014, or 79.4 per cent, attended state schools, and 52,198, or 20.6 per cent, received instruction in private schools or at home, or else remained untaught. It is estimated from the latest private schools returns that the enrolment in those schools was 60,159, of which number 45,294 pupils were between the age of 6 and 14 years. It will thus be seen that of the total statutory school population 97.3 per cent were enrolled at state or private schools, while 27 per cent were taught at home, had left school after satisfying the standards of the act, or remained untaught."

Higher education throughout the Federa-

tion is fostered by numerous secondary schools, and by four universities—Sydney, founded in 1852; Melbourne, 1855; Adelaide, 1874; and Tasmania, 1890. These institutions receive government endowments, and are empowered to grant the same degrees as the British universities, excepting degrees in divinity. In all the colonies great attention is being given to technical education.

The University of Chicago has a unique distinction in being designated by the Academy of Science of Stockholm as one of the nine great universities of the world which are to serve as a committee to select candidates for the prizes provided under the will of the late Alfred Nobel. The other institutions of the committee are the Universities of Berlin, St. Petersburg, Vienna, Rome, Leyden, London, Paris, and Zurich.

Alfred Nobel achieved world-wide renown as an inventor. His specialty was high explosives. He was born in Stockholm in 1833 and died in 1896. He first invented a gasometer, in 1857, and from that date until his death, hardly a year passed without the issuance of a number of patents to him. He took out one hundred and twenty-nine patents in England alone. It is said that Nobel's invention of dynamite marked an era in the history of civilization, in that it brought about the prodigious development of the mining industry of the world. Nobel was, at first, utterly unsuccessful in his attempts to interest New York people in the new explosive. However, the war between France and Germany came along opportunely; Germany used his dynamite with marvelous success, and before Nobel was forty years old, he had the satisfaction of seeing his explosive in general use.

Nobel's will declares that a portion of his estate shall constitute a fund, the interest from which is to be divided annually into five prizes, which are to be distributed to those persons who during the preceding year have done the most for humanity. The prizes are to be awarded: first, to the person who has made the most important discovery or invention in the department of natural philosophy; second, to the person who has made the most important discovery in chemistry; third, to the person who has made the most important discovery in physiology or medicine; fourth, to the person who produces the most excellent literary work in an idealistic direction; fifth, to the person who has worked most and best for the fraternization of the nations, for the abolition

or diminution of standing armies, as, also, for the promotion and propagation of peace. The amount available for the five prizes is to be \$7,500,000. The prizes will amount to about \$40,000 in cash each, while the recipients will also have bestowed upon them a diploma and a gold medal bearing a portrait of Alfred Nobel. The first distribution will occur December 10, 1901,—the fifth anniversary of the donor's death. The will distinctly states that no regard is to be paid to any kind of nationality in the distribution of prizes.



ANDREW CARNEGIE.

John S. Billings, director of the New York Public Library, in which he offered the city of New York \$5,200,000 for the building of sixty-five branch libraries, on condition that the city furnish sites and provide satisfactory arrangements for the maintenance of the libraries. The offer was so stupendous and so unexpected that it required a few days for the people to catch their breath. New York has been sadly deficient in libraries and similar facilities, as compared to other cities. Boston, with a population of 560,872, supports fifteen branch libraries and reading rooms, and has fourteen delivery stations, and the appropriation for library purposes is \$288,641. Chicago, with 1,698,575 population, has six branch libraries, sixty delivery stations, and appropriates \$263,397. Buffalo has 352,387 population and gives \$145,238 to its libraries every year. While New York (borough of Manhattan and the Bronx), with a population of 2,050,600, appropriates only \$183,935; and for the entire city, with a population of 3,437,202, the total library appropriation is only \$299,663.

The general attitude of New Yorkers toward Mr. Carnegie's proposition is one of cordial approval. The mayor cabled a message of heartiest gratitude, expressive of "a full appreciation of the magnitude" of the gift and "the splendid generosity that prompted it." The legislature has passed a library enabling act permitting the acceptance of the gift. But here and there a discordant note has been heard. To meet the conditions

imposed upon the city, already heavily laden with debt, is not as easy as it would seem. It is pointed out that the cost of the sites will be at least \$1,300,000; the cost of books \$650,000; and the cost of maintenance about \$500,000 annually. It would not take many years for the tax imposed upon the city for this purpose to amount to more than Mr. Carnegie's \$5,200,000. There are not many, however, who take this commercial view, though an impression obtains that there is great glee in Tammany Hall over the prospect of having so large an amount of additional rich spoil to divide among "the faithful."

While Mr. Carnegie scatters his fabulous wealth with a lavish hand, and apparently strews his path with libraries in the most nonchalant sort of a way, yet there is a method in his madness and a deep controlling motive back of his generosity. Some time ago he made this astounding declaration:

"I have often said, and I now repeat, that the day is coming, and already we see its dawn, in which the man who dies possessed of millions of available wealth which was free and in his hands ready to be distributed will die disgraced. Of course, I do not mean that the man in business may not be stricken down with his capital in the business which cannot be withdrawn, for capital is the tool with which he works his wonders and produces more wealth. I refer to the man who dies possessed of millions of securities which are held simply for the interest they produce, that he may add to his hoard of miserable dollars."

Upon his retirement from active business about two months ago—an event which he signalized by a gift of \$1,000,000 for libraries at Braddock, Homestead, and Duquesne, and \$4,000,000 for the endowment of a fund for the benefit of superannuated and disabled employees of the Carnegie Company—he wrote a letter "to the good people of Pittsburgh," which is almost pathetic because it severs ties that began to be woven in his youth and which have grown steadily stronger with the years. In this letter, however, he lays down a principle upon which the men who control and are enriched by our great industries may well ponder. He says:

"The share which I have had in the material development of our city may be considered only the foundation on which the things of the spirit are built, and in taking the proceeds of the material to develop the things of the spiritual world, I feel that I am pursuing the ideal path of life and duty."

Already Mr. Carnegie has presented over one hundred libraries, exclusive of the sixty-five branch libraries he proposes to give New York. These buildings range in cost from \$15,000 structures given to various villages, to the magnificent Institute at Pittsburg,

into which he has put a vast amount of money, and to which additions costing \$3,600,000 are about to be made. The value of this example to the American people, and to the people of the world—for Mr. Carnegie's gifts are not confined to this country—is beyond estimate, and it must ever be a cause of profound satisfaction that one who is to so large an extent a beneficiary of the people has become so conspicuously the people's benefactor.



A book which ought to be of exceptional interest to those who are following the Chautauqua reading course this year is the work of a Cambridge scholar, Mr. G. F. Abbott, who has succeeded in making up a remarkably attractive little volume of "The Songs of Modern Greece." The editor gives us not only a carefully revised Greek text, but offers abundant notes and a literal English version. These lyrics travel from one end of the Greek world to the other in the leaflets of the ballad-mongers and on the lips of Greek boatmen, as perhaps the Homeric poems were passed from island to island in the elder days. Most of these poems have been taken down by the compiler from the living lip, an assertion which is borne out by their sprightliness and freshness. Those who are familiar with the Greek of the classic period or even of the New Testament are likely to be surprised at the close resemblance of the vocabulary with that of the ancients. The endings differ, perhaps, but the meaning is in most cases easily read. The importations of words from the Italian, Arabic, and Turkish are historically interesting.



Edward Capps, author of "Homer to Theocritus"—one of the books which is being studied by the C. L. S. C. this year—has recently been made full professor of Greek in Chicago University. Professor Capps is comparatively a young man, having been graduated from Illinois College in 1887. During the college year 1887-1888 he was an instructor in Latin and Greek in Illinois College. Then he went to Yale, and took his doctor's degree in 1891. During the last year of his postgraduate study he was an instructor of Latin in the university. This work he continued to do for a year after he took his doctor's degree. From 1892 until 1896 he was assistant professor of Greek in Chicago University, and from 1896 until 1900 he was associate professor of Greek in the same university. In 1893 and

1894 Professor Capps was with the American School at Athens. In 1894 he directed—for the American School of Classical Studies at Athens—the excavations of the theater at Eretria, in Eubœa, one of the most interesting of structures. Professor Capps's published writings have been chiefly confined to articles on philological subjects in the special journals of the profession, with an occasional article or review in more popular journals. Many of these articles have been written upon matters connected with problems now receiving wide attention—the ancient Greek theater and the antiquities of the drama. These subjects have attracted special attention within fifteen years, since the excavations in Greece have thrown light on many problems of the theater, and overthrown many erroneous views.



PROF. EDWARD CAPPS.



The one national movement having for its purpose interdenominational religious effort has recently issued an address to the ministers and Christian laity of the United States. The address was penned by the Rev. Dr. George T. Purves, successor of the late Dr. John Hall in the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church, New York, and approved by a committee of leading evangelical ministers. Its features, apart from the truism that Christians ought to be more aggressive, are: that no new machinery is sought to be made; the present organizations are sufficient in number and breadth; churches are to be left to select their own methods, and no common methods are brought forward; man-to-man and woman-to-woman effort is mentioned; and there is a distinctively sectarian note to the extent that it will probably be found best for churches to work along their denominational lines. There is a plea for practicality, and a warning that Christians must, if they are to accomplish anything, themselves live the lives they prescribe for others to live. Claims are made that the committee has received thirty thousand letters from persons desirous of coöoperating with the movement, which movement has already been organized in about forty cities.

PRIMITIVE INDUSTRIAL CIVILIZATION OF CHINA.

BY GUY MORRISON WALKER.

WE live in a day of fierce competition for industrial and commercial supremacy. The finding of new markets for surplus products is the greatest problem of statecraft. Competing powers have divided almost the entire known world among them; they have established colonies and claimed sovereignty over great stretches of territory for the sole purpose of controlling their markets without the stress of competition. But lack of population and a low individual power of consumption in the existing population have made few of these new territories profitable to the powers that have seized them. Within the

each other while seeking to secure new ports for themselves and to enlarge their own spheres of influence. That the present condition in China cannot be allowed to continue is certain, and, in a measure, the recent uprising which has cost China so much will result in her ultimate benefit. The overrunning of the three great northern provinces of Shantung, Pechili, and Shansi by the punitive expeditions has given millions of Chinese their first opportunity to see many of the things in common use among civilized people, which they will now want for themselves.

The reason that the Chinese market has remained practically closed to the outside world, and that China's population has taken but small part in the world's commerce, is not to be found in the character of the people, for they are natural born traders. They early reached a state of civilization favorable to the development of trade; they were the first people to coin money, to establish banks, and to use bills of exchange; their earliest history, relating to the time of the thirtieth century B. C., shows that even at that early date the rights of property in transit were fully recognized, and that coined



PEKING CROSSING OF THE YELLOW RIVER. SHOWING TOWMEN RESTING.

borders of the Chinese empire lives approximately one-fourth of the entire human race. Granting the low consuming power of the average Chinaman under present conditions, this ancient empire, with its hundreds of millions of people, possesses the greatest latent power of consumption that exists on earth, and its enormous trade that is to be is recognized as the prize of future commerce. The Chinese market is so tremendous in its possibilities, and offers a trade so rich in its promised reward, that all others fade into insignificance when compared with it. It is not, therefore, surprising that the powers have been striving by threats and coercion to bring this last great unexploited market of the world under their control, and that they are jealously watching

money and bills of exchange were freely used in carrying on their great commerce. The real reason is found in the utter lack of cheap and rapid means of transportation and communication between the different parts of the empire. The peculiar industrial and economic conditions which prevail in China are due to the present primitive and expensive methods. The province of Honan, lying about six hundred miles inland from the coast, with an area little larger than that of the state of New York, but with a population of over twenty-two million, has a foreign commerce that aggregates only about five hundred thousand dollars per annum. The great imperial province of Szechuen, with an area of two hundred thousand square miles, and a popu-

lation almost equal to that of the whole United States, is practically an unknown world to the foreign trader. Its great population contributes little to and takes scarcely anything from the commerce of the world, because, lying as it does some fifteen hundred miles inland from the coast, above the rapids of the Yang-tse river, almost its sole means of communication with the outside world is through the small boats that shoot the rapids going down, and the returning boatmen who plod their weary way along the river bank to the interior, bearing on their backs such burdens as they are able to carry. Although these men are paid only about eight cents a day for such work, and they board themselves out of that meager wage, this method of transportation is ten or twelve times more expensive than the average charge of American railroads. It is this system, together with the heavy *likin* or mileage taxes which are levied on all produce carried through the country, that has given to China its peculiar industrial civilization.

Each community has been compelled to raise and produce what it needed, regardless of the fact that such things might be produced or manufactured cheaper and better in another part of the country. In order to prevent famines, it was long ago decreed that grain should not be exported from one province to another. This was done for fear that the people would sell their entire

prohibited from exporting to another province, has raised only what was needed for itself, and with little or no surplus on hand a failure of the crops in any district has uniformly resulted in a local famine. As a consequence the resort to irrigation has become almost universal. The people have not dared to depend on rain for making



TERRACED MOUNTAINSIDES PREPARED FOR IRRIGATION.

their crops, so the favorite places for cultivation have been along the banks of the rivers where plenty of water for that purpose was easily available, or along the mountainsides where mountain springs or streams could be found. These terraced mountainsides are a feature of China; little garden plots, one below the other, are dug out of the sides of the mountains, and each is carefully banked and arranged so that the water from springs or streams can be run from higher to lower levels, fertilizing every little spot in turn until the whole supply is exhausted.

It has been just as impossible to manufacture for export as it has been to raise food products for that purpose, for neither the product of loom nor factory could pay for its transportation to market. Each community has therefore manufactured only what it could itself consume, and Chinese industries have been carried on by the most primitive methods upon a diminutive scale. The great problem in China for centuries has been how to equalize the great supply of labor that has existed in every community with the limited home demand for it. The community has preyed upon itself, and the constantly increasing supply of Chinese labor has met



PLOWING ON THE BANKS OF THE YELLOW RIVER.

crop and then starve themselves; but the result has been that each community, being

a steadily decreasing demand, and wages have been reduced to the lowest possible point at which human existence can be maintained. Chinese opposition to labor-saving machinery is due to the realization of the fact that the hand power of production is

anchored to a table, while the upper turns on it, sometimes pulled around by a blindfolded donkey or ox, but more frequently by human hands. Mills which employ stone rollers are habitually operated by human labor, the work usually being done by the older women of the family, those whose failing strength or poor eyesight makes it impossible for them to do the heavier or finer work of the household. When the grain is ground, it is not placed in any fancy bolting machine, but it is poured into an ordinary sieve made to slide in grooves over a box, which a man seated on a stool at one end of the box jerks back and forth until only the bran is left. With all the cheapness of Chinese labor, the wheat flour made in this way costs from three and a half to four cents a pound, and as this means half a day's wage for a laboring man it is entirely beyond the reach of the common people. For their use wheat flour is usually cheapened by being mixed with peas, beans, or kaolaing (red millet). Without considering the difference in quality and fineness, American flour can be exported from our Pacific Coast and sold in China cheaper than the cheapest grade of native wheat flour. The great field that will ultimately be found in China for American mill machinery is easy to see, and if our American millers would take the pains to manufacture a special grade of flour for the Chinese market, cheapening the wheat product by a large adulteration of corn, a much greater market would be found than that which has already been opened up.

In her industries, as in her philosophies and national characteristics, China is a land of peculiar and striking contrasts. The



CHINESE ROLLER MILLS.

already practically unlimited, and that any attempt to introduce machinery without finding new markets for its products would but make the condition of Chinese labor worse. It is in their endeavor to utilize this enormous supply of human labor that the Chinese so frequently use men, women, and boys for draught purposes. It is a common thing in many parts of China to see small plows, held by a single handle, drawn by men, women, and domestic animals all hitched together. Much of the transportation is carried on by wheelbarrows which are habitually drawn by one or two men in front, while one man behind holds the handles of the wheelbarrow to guide it. Along the rivers and canals great strings of panting men follow the tow-paths, drawing the heavily laden boats, singing their weird "wind songs" in the belief that the songs will bring a lucky breeze which, catching the sails of the boat, will lighten their burden for a moment or two.

Throughout the Chinese industrial system a constant effort to "make work" will be noticed. For example, grain is harvested with little hand sickles and threshed out by treading or by rolling it on earthen floors; the straw is then forked off and the grain swept up into heaps with little hand brushes; it is winnowed by being tossed into the air by shovelfuls to allow the vagrant winds to blow the chaff away. The mills are sometimes made of huge stone tables over which revolve large stone rollers. In other places two millstones are used, the lower being



INTERIOR VIEW OF A FLOUR MILL.

empire is better supplied with coal deposits than any other country of the world, yet coal is but slightly used for fuel. The

reason for this is that the coal which, with the cheap human labor used, costs in many places not more than twenty-five cents per ton at the mouth of the mines, is raised by the cost of transportation to a price of from six to eight dollars per ton after it has been carried a distance of thirty or forty miles. This means a month or a month and a half's wage to the ordinary Chinaman, and at such a price coal is beyond the reach of the poorer people. Few of our people could afford to use coal at the price of one month's wage per ton. The consequence is that the Chinese people are forced to exercise the strictest economy in the use of fuel, and one of the features of Chinese life is the scavenger who scours the city streets and country highways gathering up chips, weeds, cornstalks, wisps of straw, or anything else that will burn.

There can be no doubt that the high cost of coal, and the resultant necessity for economy in the use of fuel, has been in a large measure responsible for the long delay in Chinese industrial development. Though a large part of China lies in the zone of severe winters, yet the Chinese have never solved the problem of building heating stoves. The poorer classes use a small brazier on which a few pieces of charcoal are burned, but this method is frequently followed with deadly results on account of the fumes, and the fire is useless except for warming one's hands. The richer classes have their *kangs* or earthen beds warmed by a fire which burns in a small brick oven outside the house, and from which the smoke and heat pass through brick flues that

gas to escape into the room. These clay stoves crack easily from the heat and rarely last more than one season, yet they cost as much or more than sheet- or cast-iron stoves of a like size in this country. With the



SCAVENGERS GATHERING FUEL.

introduction of railroads and cheap fuel into China, the supplying of fifty million Chinese homes with cheap American stoves is one of the possibilities which lie before our manufacturers. The Chinese understand the casting of iron, but they do not use it in making stoves because under their primitive methods of smelting iron is indeed a precious metal. The production of iron in China is carried on upon the same diminutive scale that marks the other industries. A Chinese blast furnace is scarcely larger than an ordinary steam heater or house furnace, and the metal produced in it is so valuable that the large iron kettles in which all meals are cooked are handed down in families as heirlooms.

The expensiveness of iron in China is shown in many curious ways. The iron kettles are beaten out by hand, and while the rim is left thick to give it stiffness, the bottom is beaten almost as thin as paper; first for the purpose of saving metal, and second in order that as little fuel as possible may be required to make the bottom of the kettle hot enough to cook the food. In many parts of the country workmen find the metal so precious that they cannot own a variety of tools or implements, one or two only being within their means. Should they desire tools of different forms, they seek the village blacksmith or wait until the arrival of one of the traveling blacksmiths who roam about the country, and whose chief business is to beat tools of one kind into other shapes to satisfy the latest needs of their owners. In the changed form the



CHINESE BLAST FURNACE IN OPERATION.

radiate through the earthen bed. The highest development yet reached is a small clay stove for heating stores, which is used without flue or chimney, and so allows the

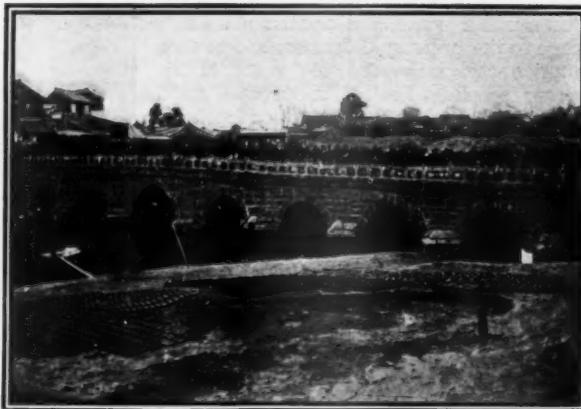
tools then remain until another need and another blacksmith restore them to the original shapes. A missionary traveling in China stopped at a village inn and asked for a hatchet, but as no such implement could be found, and no other available pieces of iron, the shoes were taken off the mules in the courtyard and beaten by an itinerant blacksmith into a very serviceable instrument. After it had been used, the metal was made over into shoes and the mules were re-shod. This will give some explanation of the reason why American tools are finding such a wide and growing demand throughout the Chinese empire, despite the high prices they bring.

Every one who visits China is of course astonished at its great walled cities. There are in the empire over two thousand of them. Miles and miles of walls and millions of houses enclosed within them are all built of brick, and every brick has been made by hand. The Chinese are a people living in brick houses, in a land without a brick-making machine, and their brick, made by labor paid but ten cents a day, cost more than machine-made brick in this country, although our machinery is operated by labor paid twenty-five times as much. The results to be accomplished by American brick machines operated by Chinese labor would be hard indeed to estimate.

Chinese distilleries are as diminutive as Chinese blast furnaces. The national drink or common Chinese wine, called *samshui* (three waters), is nothing but rectified spirits or alcohol from forty to sixty per cent strong. In southern China it is usually distilled from rice, but in the north the mash is made from kaolaing, or red millet. It is fermented in small brass kettles, the cost of which is something enormous, for what has been said of the cost of iron applies also to copper and other metals. The mash is cooked in copper kettles about the size of an ordinary barrel, carefully encased in wood to retain the heat, while the condensing apparatus above is so small than an ordinary drug store in this country would be ashamed to use it. It is the manufacture of native products in such small quantities and by such small apparatus that enables foreign products to under-

sell them in the ports and along the coasts.

The chief exports from our country to China are cotton goods and petroleum, the former comprising more than two-thirds and the two more than nine-tenths of our total exports to that country. This fact calls



DRYING BRICK ON BANKS OF A RIVER.

attention to the limitations of trade with China which are imposed by the competition of China's enormous supply of cheap labor. We can only build up a trade with that country in those products in the manufacture of which manual labor plays the smallest part. In those other products in which a large proportion of the cost is the labor used to manufacture them, it has been found impossible to compete with the native productions. The great mass of people in China wear nothing but cotton, both winter and summer, the cost of raw cotton cultivated and



VERMICELLI HANGING UP TO DRY. MILLSTONE IN FOREGROUND.

picked by hand in China, as it is in our own country, being less than it is here; but when

it comes to the manufacture of cotton goods, the Chinese product, carded and spun by hand, and woven in hand-looms, is utterly unable to compete, either in price or in quality, with the machine-made goods of this country. In the effort to cheapen the cost

oils like lard, tallow, and suet, but rely almost entirely upon vegetable oils made from beans, nuts, and seeds; the seeds are crushed in mortars and the oil pressed out in the simplest machines. A large timber has a hole chiselled in it and a block is fitted into the hole; at first the block is pressed down by means of a lever, but afterwards a brace is placed over the block and double wedges placed between them are gradually pounded together until the oil is pressed out and the seed cake left dry. These oils are used, both for cooking and lighting, without being refined, and the crude oils from the cheapest kind of beans cost from thirty to forty cents a gallon, while those made from the smaller seeds and nuts range upward in price from one to two dollars per gallon. As

the entire oil product of China is now made in this simple and expensive way, one of the richest and most profitable industries in the world here awaits some enterprising and far-seeing man.

There are some curious instances where machinery seems unable to compete with cheap Chinese labor. One of these is found in the manufacture of lumber. Timber in China is scarce and expensive, for, like all old countries in which large populations have existed for centuries, China is practically treeless; her forests have long since disappeared, but such lumber as the Chinese have is all manufactured by hand. A log is braced up and two men, one standing on top of the log and the other crouched beneath it, saw it into planks with a large frame rip-saw drawn up and down. It would seem that if there was any line in which machinery could displace hand labor it would be in this, but it has been found by trial that the steam sawmill cannot compete with the Chinese hand labor for this purpose. These two men will work in this way, sawing logs into planks for six dollars a month, three dollars a month apiece, for which sum they will work every day in the month, resting neither for Sundays nor holidays.

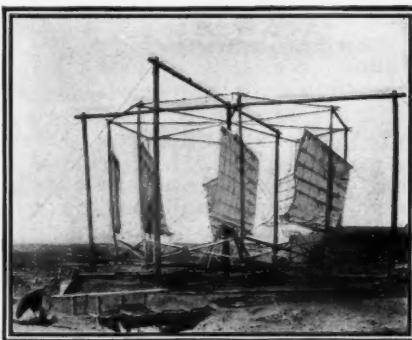
Next to water and air, a chief necessity of the human race is salt. In China the government has recognized this fact, and seized upon the manufacture of salt as a



COURTYARD OF A CHINESE WAYSIDE INN.

of cloths much of the work is done in China by women and girls in their homes. It is a common sight, in traveling through the country, to see them spinning cotton into yarn, or winding the silk from cocoons onto spools, earning in this way from two to five cents a day.

The introduction of petroleum for lighting purposes has been easy. It had to compete only with native vegetable oil, made in the most primitive way, and costing, at the cheapest, some four or five times as much as refined petroleum, while not having



WINDMILL USED FOR IRRIGATION AND PUMPING FROM SALT WELLS.

near the illuminating power. For domestic purposes the Chinese use little of the animal

government monopoly. The great windmills used in irrigation are also used to pump water from the salt wells into drying pans where it is evaporated by the sun. Chinese salt, however, is unrefined, and a Chinese official recently traveling in this country, compared the salt produced in China to American salt by calling the Chinese salt "rotten." He declared that American refined salt could be exported to China and sold there to the government at a figure which would enable the government to realize a greater profit from its salt monopoly than it does now by manufacturing at home.

There are many different lines that might be discussed, but these are enough to show the possibilities and difficulties to be encountered in Chinese trade. These, too, are enough to show the menace which the introduction of cheap Chinese labor to the markets of the world means to the high-priced labor of America. The industrial civilization of a country like China cannot be overturned in a day or a year, but there can be no doubt that the first efforts of the powers which are attempting to divide China, will, if they are allowed to accomplish their purposes, be to build up and establish fac-

tories in their territories for the purpose of utilizing this cheap Chinese labor. As such development will be largely if not entirely under government control, the manufactures so produced will certainly be of those classes which will compete least with home products. Should Germany, for instance, be allowed to accomplish her designs and secure control of the province of Shantung, with its twenty-six million of the sturdiest and best population of China, and there establish mills whose products would compete with the products of our mills, the use of that cheap labor would give her an overwhelming advantage, and the result to us would be disastrous. It will not do for Americans to think that they are unconcerned in the prospective partition of China. The condition in that country calls for the exercise of the highest type of far-seeing statesmanship. From our position in the Philippines we can look over into China, the promised land of the industrial world. The development of her industries and the possession of her markets will ensure our control of the commercial world. The opportunity before us must be seized now, or lost for all time.

SNARES.

The spider spins his web and traps the fly
Whose careless comrades buzz unheeding
by,
Unmindful that a fellow life-drop ebbs
To be transmuted into further webs.

So, too, the Lust-for-Gold inveigles men,
Sucks out their lives and spreads the snare
again.
So, too, we heed not while the monster thrives
And spins our blood to webs for other lives.
—*Edmund Vance Cooke.*

THE DANDELION.

Brave little blossom, in the meadow-land
How like a soldier stanch you take your
stand;
Bearing your oriflamme through storm and sun
From early spring until the summer's done.
Neighbors may change — the violet give way
To buds which, likewise, soon must have
their day,
And when these, too, adorn the earth no
more,
Behold, you greet us at our very door.

Freely the gold within your heart is spent,
Freely your sunshine to the mead is lent,
Freely your face smiles upward to the sky,
While, quite unheeding, hundreds pass you
by.
And yet I venture, if amid our world
Each year an instant, only, you unfurled,
We all would cry, on seeing you dis-
played:
"Oh, what a beauteous dainty God hath
made!"

—*Edwin L. Sabin.*

HINDU BELIEFS ABOUT THE WORLD AND HEAVENLY BODIES.

BY MARTELLE ELLIOTT.

(Head Mistress, Taylor High School, Poona, India.)

WE have recently been taking up astronomy in our upper class — making a study of the planets and constellations. I noticed that Sulochanabai, the converted Brahmin in the class, always recognized the heavenly bodies by names different from those by which we call them. So I began to question her, and, finally, to fully investigate the Hindu system for myself. I found the conceptions of the universe very unique and interesting.

According to Manu, an ancient Hindu writer, Brahma, the first male, was formed in a golden egg, bright as the sun, laid upon the waters. Having continued a year in the egg, Brahma divided it into two parts, and with the two shells he formed the heavens and the earth.

In an ancient writing it is asserted that there are seven island continents, surrounded by seven seas. The central continent, on which we are supposed to dwell, is called Jambudwipa, and in the middle of this is the golden Mount Meru, 756,000 miles high and extending 152,000 miles below the surface, in shape somewhat like the seed-cup of the lotus. Jambudwipa is said to be surrounded by a salt sea. The next island continent is said to be surrounded by a sea of sugar-cane juice; the third by one of wine; the fourth by a sea of ghee, or clarified butter; the fifth by a sea of curds; the sixth by one of milk; the seventh by a sea of fresh water. Beyond is a country of gold, which prevents the waters of the last and outermost sea from flowing off in all directions. Outside this golden country is a circular chain of mountains, and beyond is the land of darkness, encompassed by the shell of the mundane egg.

The depth of the earth, beneath its surface, is said to be something over 600,000 miles. This region is divided into seven parts, resting upon a thousand-headed snake, which bears the whole world as a diadem. When this snake yawns, the earth trembles; that is, earthquakes happen. According to some accounts, this snake stands on the back of a tortoise, which, in turn, is supported by eight elephants. What supports the elephants is not stated.

According to the Hindu system, the earth is the center around which revolve, in regular succession, the sun, the moon, the lunar constellations, planets, etc. First in order the sun revolves; then the moon, the lunar constellations; Budha, or Mercury; Sukra, or Venus; Mangala, or Mars; Brihaspati, or Jupiter; Sani, or Saturn; while far above these is the world of Dhruva, or the Polar Star.

Surya, the sun, was in early times worshiped as a divinity; and in many passages of the Rig-Veda heaven and earth are described as the parents of the gods. Surya is called the son of Dyaus — heaven — and is represented as moving daily across the sky in a golden car, drawn by seven white horses. Perhaps the most holy verse in the Veda is a short prayer to the sun.

According to the Hindu account, there are nine planets — Surya, Chandra, Mangala, Brihaspati, Sukra, Sani, Rahu, and Ketu. The Sanskrit word for planet means to seize or grasp, from Rahu and Ketu, supposed red and black serpents trying to seize the sun and moon during eclipses.

According to the Puranas, Budha, or Mercury, is the son of Soma, the moon, by the wife of Brihaspati, or Jupiter. Sukra, or Venus, is said to be the son of the Rishi Bhrigu, or one of the teachers of the gods. Again, the moon (Chandra, or Soma) is said to be the son of another Rishi-Rishi Atri. The chariot of the moon has three wheels and is drawn by ten horses of the whiteness of jasmine. The following explanation of the changes of the moon is given in the Puranas: Chandra is said to have married the twenty-seven daughters of Daksha. His favorite among them was Rohini. The other daughters, having complained to their father, he cursed Chandra, who became affected with consumption. The wives of Chandra then interceded with their father, who pronounced that the decay should be only for a time. Hence, the successive wane and increase of the moon. Another account says the sun fills the moon every month with nectar. Thirty-six thousand three hundred and thirty-three gods drink of it during the light fortnight, and the Pitrus, or ancestors, during the dark fortnight.

The regent of Mangala, or Mars, is supposed to be Kartikeya, a son of Siva, and god of war. Brihaspati, or Jupiter, is said to have been a Rishi, or teacher of the gods. As regent of the planet he is represented as drawn in a car by eight pale horses.

Sani, or Saturn, was the son of Surya, the sun. He is sometimes represented as clad in a black mantle, with an angry look, and riding a raven. His chariot is said to move slowly, drawn by eight piebald horses.

Rahu rides in a dusky chariot, drawn by eight black horses; Ketu has eight horses of a dark red color. Rahu is supposed to be a great demon, with four arms, and a tail (like that of a dragon) instead of feet. When the gods had obtained Amrita, the water of immortality, by churning the Milk Sea, Rahu stole among them and drank a portion secretly. The Sun and Moon, observing the theft, told Vishnu, who threw his saber at Rahu, severing his head and two arms from his monstrous body. As Rahu had swallowed some of the Amrita, both parts remained alive, and are named Rahu and Ketu, who

every now and then take revenge on the Sun and Moon by swallowing them for a short time, thus causing eclipses.

According to the Puranas, the chariots of the planets are kept in place by aerial cords, fastened to Dhruva, the Polar Star.

Of meteorites, the Koran informs us that they are flames hurled by good angels at evil spirits when they come too near.

To be sure, the writers of the Puranas, who gave such wonderful accounts of the universe, were guided only by their fancy. Observation was thought unimportant and useless. Truth had no charm in their sight. They framed marvelous stories fit only, like fairy tales, for amusement. To them the heavens did not "declare the glory of God," nor "the firmament show His handiwork." And, even today, with the advance of civilization and education, superstition, as regards the heavenly bodies and their movements, controls the people of this land and they fear them more than they ever admire and reverence them or the power that controls them all.

COURTING AND NESTING DAYS.

BY N. HUDSON MOORE.



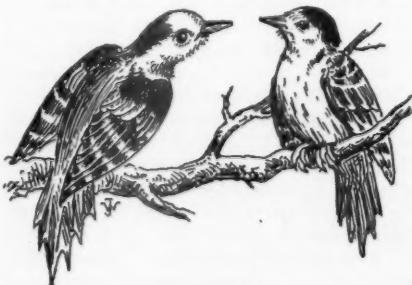
DURING the first two weeks of May the bird student can pick up enough crumbs of comfort to give pleasure through the whole year. This is a very large statement, I know, and applies chiefly to those latitudes where the migrations are at their height. It is in May that we may have the privilege of seeing the warblers at their brightest and best. On a day with a bright sun, or after a warm rain, I do not despair of counting twenty or thirty varieties of birds, resident and migrant, before breakfast.

The song of the ruby-crowned kinglet was spoken of last month, but an accompaniment to the song was not mentioned. In the books it says, "the male bird has a concealed red crest," a very misleading statement. You may be watching through your glasses the modest little green bird exploring in a painstaking way every nook and cranny in a tree. Let his mate come near, or some intruder, feathered or otherwise, venture too familiarly, and you will behold a marvel. From the top of his head rises this crest like a little flame.

One eager observer said, "It seemed as if he pressed a button and an electric light

glowed." He will hold this crest erect during the whole time he sings, and then it goes as suddenly as it came. He may erect it without song whenever his mate comes nigh, for during courtship at least he wishes to appear at his gayest. It is curious that this scrap of feathers should be swayed by these two very human emotions, love and hate, which hang out this tiny red badge as their signal.

In direct contrast to this dainty fashion of courtship is that of the sapsucker, or yellow-



SAPSUCKERS.

bellied woodpecker. He sits with his mate on a branch, bill to bill, and they raise and

depress their heads with surprising rapidity, uttering at the same time a series of discordant notes. Their pointed heads give them the look of two gossiping old women in caps.

We may yield to the sapsucker and the kingfisher the palm for making the most disagreeable noises while addressing their mates. They both make devoted husbands. The sapsucker particularly is most assiduous, assisting in boring out the nest, taking his turn in sitting on the eggs and feeding the young. He always stays "near and handy by" in case he should be wanted.

We speak of the song of a bird as if it were an everyday affair. It is the call-note, the homely little chirp or chitter which is really the language of birds. The song is the outpouring of his love, his expression of emotion, and soon stops when there are young in the nest. Some English writers aver that the nightingale stops singing the very day, nay the very hour, the young chip the shell, but our birds do not seem to be so abominably prompt.

Our splendid oriole is known best by his martial "chuck, chuck." Hear him at sunrise as he swings on the elm, bare as yet of leaves, and pours out a burst of melody, the very perfection of a love-song.

The brown thrasher is another marvelous singer whose performance is not worthily dealt with in the books. Last spring there was a pair in the Forest of Arden. On the topmost branch of a tall tree, with tail and wings drooping, the male would seat himself, throw up his head, and sing. For ten minutes you might listen to this vocal cascade, bright, free, and of great variety. He sang with peculiar brilliancy at night, sometimes till nearly nine. On one such occasion, with a new moon in the sky, a cat-bird, prince of mimics, took up the strain from a bush near by and did his best to rival the thrasher. Such a concert amply repaid one for trudging over a freshly plowed field in the dusk. To my mind the thrasher excels the mocking-bird, who always seems to be trying over his notes and judging of effects. The thrasher knows what he wants to do, and does it.

Very different from these brilliant songs are the organ obligatos of the beautiful white-crowned sparrow. These birds have a way of effacing themselves, even though the white on head and throat makes them showy in the open. They have only a few notes, but how rich and serene they are. As one bird after another takes up the strain, you almost feel as if you stood within cathedral

doors. It is not with song only that birds woo their mates. How dexterously a wren will catch a bee and present it in the tender-

est manner to his little brown mate. A cedar-bird will politely pass a worm to his lady-love, in fact, it may go down a whole row of the birds before some one is greedy enough to swallow it.

Not to overlook what is near at hand, observe the gallant manners of the common barnyard cock when he has found a choice morsel. The hens have the first taste, while he looks on voicing his satisfaction, and ready to do battle should another male come that way.

At this season birds develop traits that are quite unexpected. They are as gay as the season, their plumage and song are in perfect beauty. They are the most ardent of lovers, and will strut about displaying their fine feathers, sing their sweetest, and battle with a more favored rival. When they are happily mated and the serious business of nest-building is on foot, what eagerness and intelligence they show. Such countless conversations with regard to site, such care is expended in choice of material, and such wonderful intelligence is shown in the building of the nest.

The beauty of many nests is quite unguessed unless you examine them closely or see one in process of construction. One May morning I chanced upon a red-start weaving her dainty home. She labored incessantly for hours, and as there was a fresh breeze blowing, at great disadvantage. She bound to some twigs a few floating ends of spider's web. Every time she flew away they became hopelessly tangled, and she patiently straightened them out with her bill, using that awkward implement with more dexterity than we could fingers. She apparently gathered all the webs near at hand, and then began to weave in light grass and fiber. Three days later the nest was finished. I saw no assistance given by the mate who stayed in the vicinity, to be sure, spreading his tail and flitting about, and urging her on with his little jerky call-note.

There are not always an equal number of males and females of any one species in a neighborhood. There are always some un-



mated males, as well as some unappropriated spinsters. These are called upon to fill the ranks if accident or boys kill one of a pair.

There is a bachelor robin which has appeared in the same garden for several years. His own kind have rejected him and he ruffles it among the English sparrows who seem quite proud of his acquaintance. They do not resent his robbing them of any choice morsel they may have picked up, but give up without a murmur. There is no peculiarity in his appearance, which sometimes accounts for ungenerous treatment from other birds of the same species, and he lives contentedly all summer with his humble friends. He arrives so early that it does not seem possible that he goes far to the south for his winter resort. The sparrows stay all the year, so in winter he must fend for himself, or perhaps he has other friends in other places.

Wander where you will in May you will find the first half of the month devoted to courtship and song, and the latter full of nesting.

Credit is rarely given to birds for their exquisite cleanliness. No offensive matter is allowed to remain within the nest, to endanger the health of the young, the patient mother working from daylight to dusk, in many cases only cheered on by masculine encouragement manifested in song, rather than in actual assistance.

That the colors of birds' eggs differ, as well as the shapes, we all know. Why should the robin secrete a pigment that produces one of her lovely blue eggs, and the song sparrow content herself with grayish ones speckled with brown? Is it the old story of "protective coloring"?

Not all eggs are oval. Owls lay those which are nearly spherical, and are easily turned by the bird to secure equal warmth. Her eggs cannot roll away, being placed in a hole. On the other hand, some aquatic birds that deposit one or two eggs on a bare rock, lay such elongated ones that a gale of wind causes them to spin around on their axis.

The usual number composing a "clutch" is four or six eggs, with the small ends towards the center so that the set is easier to cover. The time of incubation depends largely on the size of the eggs, those of the humming-bird taking ten days while a hen will take three weeks. As a general thing only the necessary number of eggs are laid; four to six, though these may be replaced if the bird is robbed. Our domestic hen is a well-known example of long continued egg-laying.

Some owls, a species that seems quite irregular in their habits, lay one egg and

hatch it, before laying another. The bird first hatched must "mother" the second egg and keep it warm while the real mother is searching for food.

The amount of labor performed by a pair of birds in keeping a nestful of little ones fed and clean would seem to be severe enough to induce nervous prostration. In many cases this is done twice or thrice in a few weeks. Besides gathering the food, in some cases it is specially prepared for the young, either beaten to a pulp, or, as with doves and flickers, swallowed and softened before being given to the fledglings. Even the dainty humming-bird sips the honey with its long slender bill, and then regurgitates it for the nourishment of the two feathered mites that fill her nest.

MAY NOTES.

In teaching children to study and love nature, one thing that has to be specially guarded against is the wanton destruction of "specimens." It is usually possible to study without taking life, but insects, particularly beetles, do have to be examined at close range. The collecting fever is apt to burn fiercely and go out. One good specimen passed around is often enough for a class, and thus many harmless creatures may be spared to pass their brief life unmolested. I would have the following lines "writ large" and put in every schoolroom:

" Hurt no living thing;
Ladybird, nor butterfly,
Nor moth with dusty wing,
Nor cricket chirping cheerily,
Nor grasshopper so light of leap,
Nor dancing gnat, nor beetles fat,
Nor harmless worms that creep."

— C. Rossetti.

May seems a month of miracles, such birds, such flowers, such sounds and scents, everything responding to Nature's call. The city parks are beautiful, lilac, wistaria, spiraea, all in full blossom, and the grass golden with the gay sunny dandelion.

One of the most ardent and patient lovers among our birds is the reviled English sparrow. He waltzes about, with trailing wings, trying to attract his brown mate who is actively picking up seeds. If he is too persistent, and she does not fancy him, she knocks him down, pecks him and maltreats him, without a protest on his part. When she returns to her meal, up he gets, and tries again. As a lover, he is one of the most amusing little creatures to be found.

To encourage the bird-lover, I add a list of birds seen the first fourteen days of May, 1900, from a second-story window looking into a small thicket of young trees. A trolley line ran within two hundred feet, and the activity of city life went on unceasingly all about: ruby-crowned kinglet, summer yellow-bird, grasshopper sparrow, black-throated blue warbler,



ENGLISH SPARROW AS A LOVER.

Baltimore oriole, Maryland yellow-throat, white-crowned sparrows, oven-bird, yellow-rumped warbler, Cape May warbler, sapsucker, palm warbler, red-polled warbler, black-throated green warbler, brown thrasher, Blackburnian, bay-breasted, chestnut-sided warblers, red-start, yellow-bellied flycatcher, bluegray gnatcatcher, magnolia, parula, hooded warblers, veery, purple finch, wood-thrush, humming-bird, Nashville warbler, warbling vireo, vesper sparrow, least flycatcher, rose-breasted grosbeak, cedar-birds, catbird, chickadees, Wilson's warbler, and olive-backed thrush, — thirty-eight varieties. The Cape May warbler is rare; he stayed fourteen days, and during the last eight his mate was with him.

I call Rochester the last stop on the air-line before crossing the lake, and believe the birds, those that are going north to breed, rest here an extra time in preparation for the severe trip. All cities and towns similarly situated with reference to the Great Lakes should be similarly blessed.

Who will get a longer list this May?

The Mayflower is sweetening the woods all around us. It is interesting to note that this was the first flower found by the Pilgrim mothers after landing on the bleak New England shore. They named it in honor of the good ship which bore them here.

A PRIVATE INDEX, AND HOW TO MAKE IT.

BY REV. HERBERT W. HORWILL, M. A.

KNOWLEDGE is power, says the old proverb, but there is perhaps more truth in Edward Thring's paradox that the art of learning is the art of knowing what to forget. Mental discipline is always power, but the accumulation of facts in the memory may, in some circumstances, be only a dead weight. For example, a boy in a Chicago school may have come across a directory of the city of London, and may have learned from it the list of business houses, with their numbers, in Furnival street. What power does that information give him—in Chicago? The man of culture is he who has acquired the habit of judicious selection; who always prefers the best to the second best, and does not exhaust his intellectual vigor in the pursuit of the unprofitable.

But there is one kind of learning that always pays. It is not worth the while of a Chicago boy to learn by heart any part of the London directory, but it is worth his while to know of the existence and purpose of such a book. The sum of human knowledge includes an infinite miscellany of facts that we need not attempt to commit to memory. What is of real service is that we should know where to turn for any one of these facts, if we should happen to have occasion for it. In short, what we need is not so much a memory for the facts as a memory for the places where the facts are to be found.

This index memory is an important part of the equipment of the modern journalist. The gift of brilliant style is no longer sufficient for the man who aims at leading public opinion on questions of the day. Every newspaper office has its library, part of which is usually home-made. When Mr. W. T. Stead was at the *Pall Mall Gazette*, two clerks were kept busy cutting out, pasting into

books, and indexing newspaper scraps that were expected to be some day useful for reference. One of Mr. Stead's most distinguished journalistic pupils, Mr. E. T. Cook, late editor of the *Daily News*, has organized a complete system of the same kind. It has recently been said that "when you went to consult Mr. Cook on any subject, he was always ready in a second to look for and to find the exact information which was required upon it. In volume after volume he had carefully compiled every single bit of information among contemporary events, writings, and speeches which bore, or might bear, on the controversies of the time."

It would be a useless task for the average student to gather together a museum of speeches by members of congress, or of editorial articles in the New York papers. But every now and then, in our reading of dailies and weeklies, we come across something which is too valuable to be allowed to disappear into the waste-paper basket. It may be an anecdote that will give point to a Sunday-school address, or an exposition of a difficult text, or an illuminating criticism of one of our favorite authors. We deceive ourselves if we think we shall remember it from a single perusal of the paper. Five years hence we shall have an impression that we once read something of the kind, but our recollections of it will be blurred, and we shall possibly attribute to Abraham Lincoln an epigram that was really uttered by Henry Ward Beecher.

It may perhaps be helpful to some of my readers if I give an account, in detail, of my own method of dealing with newspapers. I have followed it for about fifteen years, and have often found it of great advantage in my work as a writer and public speaker. The first article in my outfit is a blue pencil, which I carry with me when reading a paper,

and with which I mark a cross against the beginning of any article that seems worth preserving. At some time when I am too wide awake to be idle but not brisk enough for real work, I take a large pair of scissors and dissect my pile of journals. In cutting out each extract, it is important to write upon it the name and date of the paper from which it is taken. Otherwise there is a danger of being unable to respond to any challenge that may be made of the trustworthiness of facts used on the basis of such a quotation. Each extract is then neatly folded, its width being that of the average newspaper column, and its depth a little more than four inches. It is inscribed on the back with its title and the number it is to bear in my index-book. When fifty of these cuttings have accumulated, I pack them together between two pieces of cardboard, around which I fasten an elastic band to keep them in place. On the front cardboard I write the number of the cuttings included in that package, *e.g.*, "2151-2200." The sheaves that I have thus gleaned are then stacked on my shelves, in such a way that I can quickly get at any cutting to which I need to refer. At first I used to store my cuttings in large envelopes, but I found them very liable to get loose and stray out of their proper places. I believe the system I have described to be more practically useful than that of pasting extracts into books. For one thing, many cuttings have valuable matter on both sides; for another, there is sometimes occasion to read an extract in the course of a speech, and no self-respecting audience would allow itself to be addressed by a man who carried a small library about with him. An exception must, however, be made in the case of cuttings which are so short that they would probably be lost if grouped with the rest in bundles. These are best preserved by being pasted into a commonplace book, into which book I also copy short passages from volumes I have borrowed.

I have not yet described the indexing itself, which must, of course, be an essential feature of any system. It would be of little use to accumulate a multitude of cuttings, even though they were numbered, if no record were made of their contents. My own plan is to keep three index-books of quarto size, strongly bound; one for general entries (arranged alphabetically), another for proper names (also arranged alphabetically), and one for theological topics (arranged according to subjects). In these books I enter (1) the

topics of my cuttings, as I make up each package, (2) the entries in my commonplace book, and (3) any important references to books that I have been reading. References to expositions of passages of Scripture are best noted in an interleaved Bible, or in such a copy as the Oxford Press publishes for that purpose, with a margin of the same width as the whole column of letterpress.

A sample extract may show more clearly how my system works. Suppose I am about to write or speak on the subject of Spiritualism. I turn up the subject in my theological index, and I find against the word the following entries:

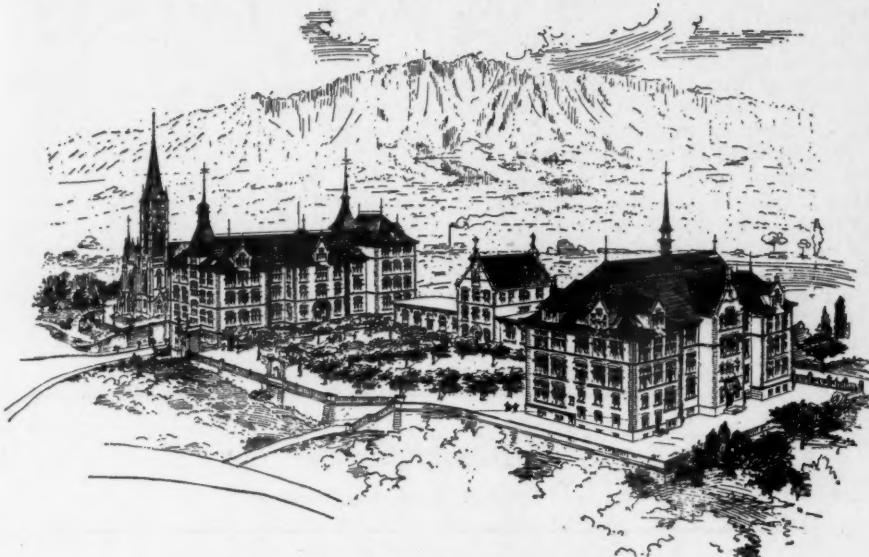
Palmer 44, 198: Lit. Recoll. 250: Tenn. 272: C. P. 2302, 3197: Sc. 1105-13, 1726, 1860: Burton's Life ii. 136: Exp. 3rd. a. 1.56: Horton O. T. Wom. 135: Stowe 306, 336, 371: Stelligeri 67.

I thus discover that I shall find material on the subject in the biography of Prof. E. H. Palmer, Payn's "Literary Recollections," Tennyson's Poems, the Life of Sir Richard Burton, the first volume of the third series of the *Expositor*, Horton's "Women of the Old Testament," the Autobiography of Mrs. Stowe, and Professor Barrett Wendell's "Stelligeri." I suppose that, if I had trusted to my memory, there is not one of these books—except the last, which I read only a few weeks ago—to which I should have thought of referring for information. In addition, I find that I have two entries on the subject in my commonplace book (indexed as C. P.) and eleven cuttings among my newspaper extracts (Sc. being my abbreviation for "Scraps").

If I happened to possess any book about Spiritualism I should not take the trouble to enter it in the index, as I should not be likely to forget it. I should know, of course, that a valuable article might probably be found in the "Encyclopedia Britannica" and other books of reference in the nearest public library, and that a Poole's Index in the same place would also be of service. The value of a private index is that it supplies references which would not be found in any library finding-list, and that it deals with books which we have already read once, and respecting which the memory can therefore quickly be refreshed.

I have written this account of my own practise, not expecting that it will commend itself to everybody who reads this article as "just the thing" to facilitate his work, but rather that it may suggest general principles of method that may be modified to suit individual cases. It may seem at first sight a

great burden to take pains about the preservation of newspaper cuttings and the classification of one's book-reading. The trouble that it involves should be considered, however, as an investment. The benefit of it will be reaped after many days. I have known men whose exceptional strength of memory enabled them during middle age to recall without effort the reading of years before, but who, when they passed sixty, began to regret that they had not laid out some of their time in preparing aids for a recollection no longer so retentive. To the busy writer or speaker, an index is a kind of literary banking deposit, steadily accumulating interest as he works and sleeps, and beyond reach of the depredations made upon other kinds of capital.



SCHOOL BUILDINGS ON THE BÜHL, ZÜRICH, SWITZERLAND.

HOW CHILDREN ARE EDUCATED IN SWITZERLAND.*

BY PROFESSOR ANDREW BAUMGARTNER.

(Of the Zürich Public Schools.)

ZÜRICH enjoys the credit of having good and cheap schools. A great many of the numerous strangers who come to live at Zürich come because of the vast educational resources to be found here—parents who wish children to get a good liberal education, students who wish to finish higher studies.

Since elementary instruction is made compulsory by law, and since the town, the canton, and the state do so much for the public

* This account of a remarkable public school system in the most democratic country on the globe has been secured by Chancellor Vincent. Prof. Baumgartner has become prominently identified with the spread of the Chautauqua Movement in Switzerland as being eminently fitted to supplement the exceptional means already existing there for the education of the people.—[Editor.]

schools, there are very few private schools in Zürich. The same is true of any other town or place in Switzerland, Lausanne and Geneva perhaps excepted. For children between the ages of six and twelve there are only five private schools in Zürich, and there are about as many for pupils above twelve years of age.

Children between the ages of six and fourteen are compelled to attend school. They must attend the Primary School. The obligation is precisely this: all parents are bound to give their children instruction at least equal to that afforded in the public primary schools; but if they choose, they are at liberty to teach their children at home, or they may have them educated in private establishments. Attendance upon the Kin-

dergartens, which have no state endowment, is optional.

At the age of twelve any child may leave the Primary School, and go either to the Secondary School or to the Gymnasium (the classical department of the so-called Cantonal School). Those who enter neither of the schools at twelve have to stay two years longer at the Primary School. During these two years the student enters what is called the Enlarged Primary School. This arrangement is new for the canton of Zürich, the legal steps having been taken recently. The Primary and Secondary Schools are free, and the books, stationery, and so on, are supplied gratuitously by the town.

Children leave the Secondary School at the end of two or three years, in order either to learn a trade or to continue their studies. To do the latter, girls go to the High School for Girls, or to the School of Industrial Arts. Boys have a greater choice of schools—the Commercial School, the Technical or Industrial School (both being departments of the Cantonal School), the Agricultural School,

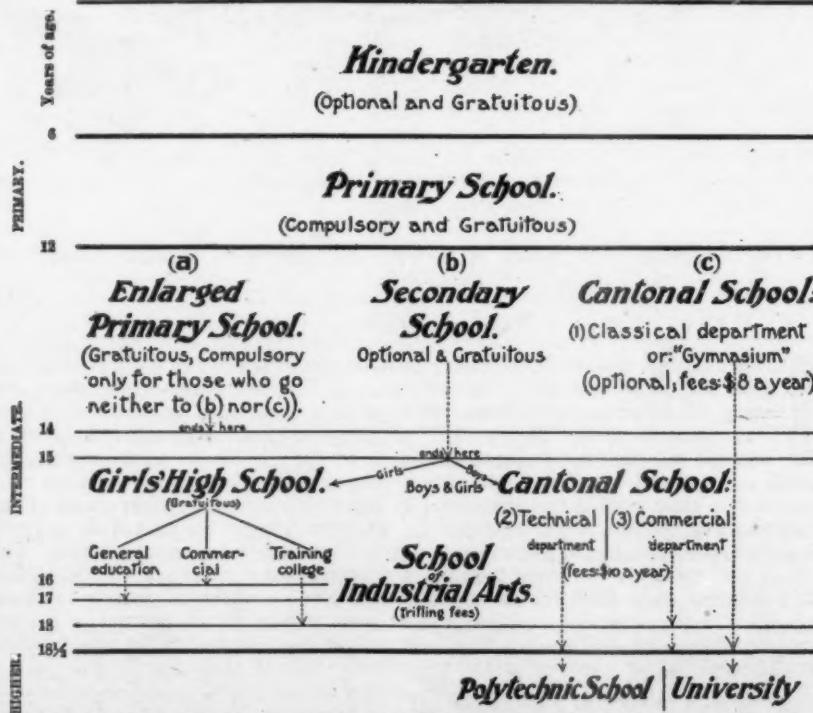
all of which are at Zürich; or the cantonal Training College, which is at Küsnacht, four miles away from Zürich; or the cantonal Technikum, which has its seat at Winterthur.

The Cantonal School has three departments: first, the classical, called Gymnasium, which prepares for the University and the Veterinary School (now part of the University); second, the technical (industrial or realistic), called Industrieschule, which prepares for the Federal Polytechnic; and third, the commercial, which prepares for life, or for further studies at the University.

The University belongs to, and is maintained and managed by the Canton, not by the town of Zürich. The Polytechnic School is federal; that is, maintained and administered by the Confederation. Its various departments are: the schools of Architecture, Engineering, Technical Mechanics, Chemistry, Agriculture, and a school for teachers of mathematics and natural sciences. There are also courses in historical, political and military science.

Girls go through the Primary and Sec-

TABLE ILLUSTRATING THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM IN ZÜRICH.



Other Municipal Public Schools:—Trades and Handicrafts, Silk-weaving, Music, Dressmaking and Cutting-out, Cookery.

ondary School. Those who wish to pursue their studies then enter the High School for Girls (höhere Töchterschule), which has three divisions: one for general education, another for a commercial training, a third for the training of female teachers for the Primary School. There are courses to train female teachers for the Kindergarten system, also special Latin courses for those who wish to enter the University, to study medicine, law, etc. At the age of fifteen girls may also attend the School of Industrial Arts.

There are still other public schools maintained and managed by the city, and highly appreciated and much frequented; for instance, the Gewerbeschule—(a) School of Trades and Handicrafts, (b) School of Industrial Arts—the schools of Music, of Dressmaking and Cutting-out, of Cookery, of Silk-weaving, and a Mechanics Institution. The only schools in Zürich not belonging to the city are the Cantonal School, the Agricultural School, the Veterinary School, and the University, which are all

Cantonal; the Polytechnic, which is Federal.

Sir Francis O. Adams and C. D. Cunningham truly say in their book on the Swiss Confederation: "The Swiss citizen takes an honest pride in his school and everything connected with it. The schoolhouse in any town or village, from the capital of the canton to the most remote hamlet, is certain to attract the notice of a stranger as one of the most solid and commodious buildings in the place, and no site, however costly, would be looked upon as thrown away by being used for a schoolhouse." The town of Zürich, with 150,000 inhabitants, has about forty schoolhouses for Primary and Secondary education alone, all of them large edifices (in fact, too large), and many of them really fine buildings. We give, as a specimen, the newest, those on the Bühl, embracing the Primary School, the Secondary School, and the Gymnastic Hall.

Besides all these there are schools for the blind and deaf and dumb, and for children of weak intellect.

APPROPRIATION.

I would make use of life,
Full use, best use! Let come what will,
'Tis life, and life my cup shall fill.
Or sweet or bitter be the draught,
Boots not, but how the cup is quaffed.
What out of aloes or sweet wine
Doth enter in, becometh mine?
From this my God-appointed fate
What good shall I appropriate?
Be such my spirit's inquiry:
God fixed my lot—but left me free!

Out of all stress and strife,
Out of all disappointments, pain,
What deathless profit shall I gain?
If sorrow cometh, shall it slay?
Or shall I bear a song away?
When wave and tide against me lift,
Shall I still cleave my course, or drift?
Soul! nerve thyself to such as these
Deep problems, sacred destinies!
It matters not what fate may give;
The best is thine—to nobly live!

—James Buckham.



The RIVALRY of NATIONS

WORLD POLITICS OF TODAY

By Edwin A. Start

Required Reading
for the Chautau-
qua Literary and
Scientific Circle.

China and the
ancient world.

Summary of Pre-
ceding Chapters.



At the present time the attention of the world is focused upon China almost to the exclusion of other points of interest. The contact of China with the world through commercial intercourse is of immemorial antiquity. Just when in the dawning of civilized life in Asia the Chinese people developed a national existence we do not know, but there are evidences that trade was carried on between the Chinese and the ancient empires of Egypt and Babylonia. China itself is supposed to have been occupied by the race that now inhabits it, about twenty-four or twenty-five centuries before Christ. It was known in the days of the early Roman empire, and it is described by Ptolemy as "a vast and populous country touching on the east the ocean and limits of

[Chapters I.-IV. appeared in the October issue. The first was an introductory discussion of the significance of the present age, the expansion of the nations, the industrial revolution, the growth of democracy, and the world problems resulting from the interplay of these elements. Chapter II. explained the politics of Europe in the middle of the century, as turning upon the ideas of nationality and the revolutionary democracy; with the Eastern question as shaped in the Crimean war. In Chapters III. and IV. the development of England and France, respectively, in the last half century was traced, with especial reference to the rise of English democracy and the growth of republican government in France. [Chapters V.-VIII. in the November number considered in a similar way the other four great powers of Europe, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia.

[Chapters IX.-XI. in the December number dealt with the question of the near East. Chapter IX. described the reopening of the Eastern question after 1871, explaining the relations of Russia and Turkey and the status of the Turkish empire and the Balkan and Danubian provinces. Chapter X. discussed the developments from 1871 to the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78, the results of the war and the treaty of San Stefano, and Chapter XI. the resettlement of the Eastern question by the Congress of Berlin, the resulting conditions, and the effect upon Russian policy.

[In the January number Chapter XII. discussed the consequences of the Congress of Berlin in the Balkan peninsula; Chapter XIII. considered Egypt as a factor in the Eastern question, and the British control; Chapter XIV. was a general introduction to the subject of Colonial Expansion; and Chapter XV., on "Imperial England," began an examination of the characteristics, methods, and extent of the colonial activity of the different European powers.

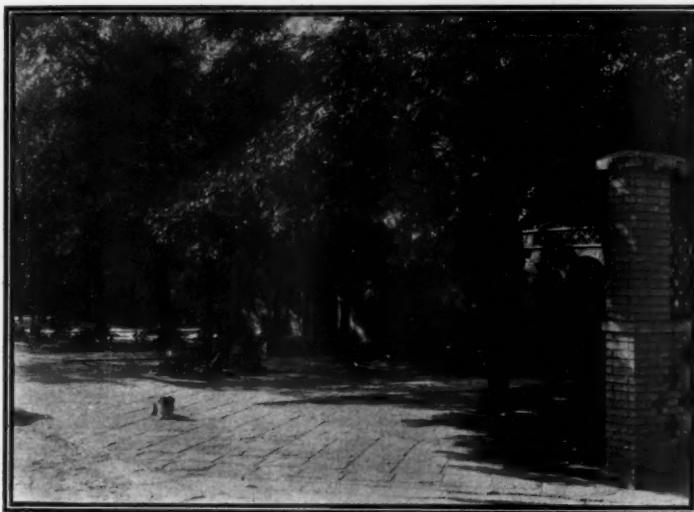
[Chapters XVI.-XIX. in the February number continued the study of the expansion of the great nations begun in January, Chapter XVI. being a study of the growth of the British imperial idea in its spirit and manifestations. A chapter on German colonial policy showed the consistency and studied character of German colonial methods, and another dealt with French colonization in its chief aspects. The closing chapter was on Russian expansion.

[In the March number Chapters XX.-XXII. were devoted to a consideration of the advance of civilization in Africa, the scramble for territorial possessions, and the present relations and prospects of the European nations in the Dark Continent. Chapter XXIII. dealt with the entrance of the New World into world politics, the Monroe doctrine and South America. Chapter XXIV. described the growth of the foreign policy of the United States.

[Chapters XXV.-XXVIII. appeared in the April number. The first of these dealt with considerations growing out of the recognition of the United States by itself and others as a world power. Some of its needs, limitations, and responsibilities in this rôle were touched upon. Chapter XXVI. reviewed the great historic movements of nations, with the resulting reconstruction of the map, and considered "the new map of the world." In the following chapter "The Problems of Asia" were taken up, starting from the basis of the four Asiatic empires, Russia and Great Britain, China and Japan. The especial importance of railways in the Asiatic problem was alluded to. Finally, in the fourth of these chapters, Japan, "the new oriental world power," was traced to its present place among the nations.]

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE STORM CENTER.



THE UNITED STATES
LEGATION, PEKING.

the habitable world and extending west nearly to Imaus and the confines of Bactria. The people are civilized men of mild, just, and frugal temper, eschewing collision with their neighbors and even shy of close intercourse, but not averse to dispose of their own products, of which raw silk is the staple, but which includes also silk stuffs, furs, and iron of remarkable quality."¹ This description, so well corresponding to our knowledge of the modern China, shows that the knowledge of these people in the time of Ptolemy was something more than mere legend.

The overland route through Bactria (a year's journey) was open and used by European traders until shut off by the dominion of the Seljuk Turks in Asia Minor and Syria. Much information has been brought to light in recent years from Chinese accounts in regard to the early trade relations of China with the western people. In the thirteenth century the conquests of the great Mongol chieftain Jenghiz Khan, extended by his even greater grandson Kublai Khan, brought together in one vast empire, China, Corea, Thibet, Tongking, Cochin-China, most of India beyond the Ganges, a part of Persia, Siberia, and the Turkish possessions westward to the Dnieper river in Russia. These Mongol rulers were liberal men, with the ideas of statesmen as well as conquerors. Under them there was freedom of travel in China, as we know from the experiences of the Polos, narrated by Marco Polo, and from other travelers who ventured into this region. Kublai Khan made Peking the capital of his empire. He offered the pope an opportunity to introduce Christianity into the vast Mongol domains, but Innocent III. was too much occupied with European politics to respond to the hospitable call of the large-minded oriental ruler, and the opportunity was turned over to the Grand Lama, the pope of Buddhism.

The great Mongol empire.

Under the native Ming dynasty, which began in 1368, a new and more bigoted policy was adopted, which grew still narrower as the celestials learned to suspect European purposes. Nor did this change under the Manchu emperors, who established their power by conquest in 1644, and have maintained their rule over China, Thibet, and Mongolia until the present time.

Modern European intercourse with China began in the seventeenth

Exclusive policy.



¹ Cited in Yule, "Cathay and the Way Thither."

Modern European intercourse with China.

century, although the Portuguese, forerunners of Europeans in eastern seas, and the Spanish from Manila, traded in China in the sixteenth century. The Dutch followed, a patient and persistent race of traders, who approached the Chinese in a different spirit from other Europeans, although they could at times be brutal and uncompromising. There has always been a failure of the Chinese and European races to understand each other, due to an utter difference in their points of view, and to the rapacity and lack of principle, so often characterizing European methods in the East, which have inspired the Chinese with disgust. The latter have never been able to understand why people having similar dress and customs should be such bitter rivals, and they have shown less respect for Europeans on this account, and have taken advantage of western rivalries as astute orientals have always done.

France and Russia.

The early connection of France with China was through the Jesuit missionaries who made it their business to become thoroughly acquainted with the people, living with them, and adopting their customs and mode of dress. They were thus able to exercise a considerable influence and to obtain much valuable information. Russia has been in contact with China for nearly four centuries; indeed, medieval Russia was embraced among the tributary states of the Mongol empire until it threw off that yoke and pushed eastward by rapid marches across Siberia to the Chinese boundary. The first Chinese treaty was a boundary treaty with Russia made in 1689. Because of their peculiar half-relationship with Asia and their experience as ruled and rulers with Asiatic peoples, the Russians have known better than other European nations how to deal with the Chinese, refusing to humiliate themselves by unworthy and unmeaning ceremonials, and thereby compelling respect and making their position in all negotiations stronger.

England.

England began its intercourse with China in 1635, but did not carry on any active operations until 1664. From the beginning until 1834 the English trade was in the hands of the East India Company. The Portuguese maintained a most determined and stupid opposition to British trade at Canton, but the decline of Macao and the growth and prominence of the rival British port of Hongkong show how unsuccessful their policy was. The first war between China and England arose primarily from the conditions of communication between the two countries. The Chinese government looked upon every outside nation that sought to communicate with it through envoys as acknowledging subjection, and without the Europeans realizing the fact, each of the great powers had put itself in this attitude so far as the Chinese standpoint was concerned. The Chinese believed that the Europeans were dependent upon China for tea, rhubarb, and silks, without which they could not live. This point of view led the Chinese to misunderstand the European commissioners in every case.

Politics and trade separate in China.

Furthermore, the Chinese could not understand the relation between politics and trade. The interference of the diplomatic officials with matters of commerce was something entirely beyond their understanding. When the English sent out a high official as superintendent of trade in China, with powers partly consular and partly diplomatic, the Chinese officials regarded him as a kind of head merchant, and refused him any official recognition. Their own trade was entirely in the hands of the body known as the Hong merchants, whose position and responsibilities were peculiar. They had a monopoly of the European trade, and were expected to conduct all dealings with the European merchants, and were held responsible for the conduct of the Europeans. On account of this responsibility, they paid heavily for the special privileges they enjoyed. The general superintendence of the Chinese trade was in the hands of the senior Hong merchant. The government officials did not expect to be troubled with these affairs in the least. The Chinese looked upon the

English superintendent of trade as they looked upon their own senior Hong merchant, while the English government had commissioned him as its representative to the Chinese government.

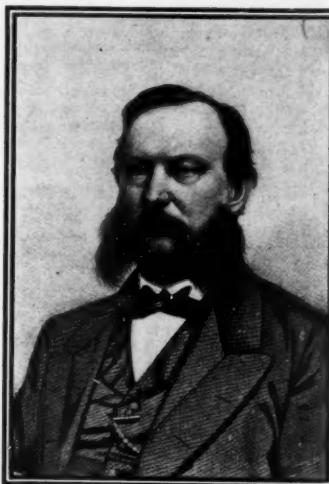
The first collision between China and a European power was due to the opium trade. The Chinese government had engaged in a sincere attempt to suppress the opium traffic, which was having an injurious effect on the Chinese people; but it had become a large part of the foreign trade, and opium was imported to the value of millions of dollars from India. With or without the connivance of the Chinese officials, generally with it, this opium was smuggled in without regard to the laws of China. Regular trade was sidetracked by the enormous importance of the opium traffic, and the unwillingness of Great Britain, which was the country most largely interested, to make any effort to prevent its citizens from infringing the Chinese laws, produced strained relations. Punishment for infringements fell upon the Chinese, while the foreigners were the real principals in the illegal practises. The forced surrender of eleven million dollars' worth of opium in English vessels at Canton led to the Opium war, which was closed by the treaty of Nanking. This first Chinese commercial treaty opened the five ports of Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai to British residence and trade according to an understood tariff. By it the island of Hongkong was ceded to England.

This treaty aroused great interest in Europe and America. An embassy, headed by Caleb Cushing, was sent from the United States, and negotiated the first commercial treaty between this country and China in 1844. The French treaty was arranged the same year.

The misunderstandings between the West and the East were not over. In 1856 a Chinese vessel, the lorch *Arrow*, was seized by Chinese officials for alleged piracy. The *Arrow* ran up the English flag, and the owners declared that she was an English boat. Thereupon England's representative in China, Sir John Bowring, made imperative demands upon China for restitution, and an apology to the British government. His demands, though unwarranted by the facts of the case, were all met by China, except that for an apology. This the Chinese officials refused to make, and the complications therefrom arising brought on a new war in the fall of 1856. France joined England in 1857. The war closed in 1858, with the treaty of Tien-Tsin. England and France were to have ministers at the Chinese court, at least on special occasions, and China was to be represented at London and Paris. Christianity was to be tolerated in China. A certain measure of freedom of access to Chinese rivers for English and French merchant vessels, and to the interior of China for English and French subjects, was granted. China was to pay the expenses of the war, and the term "barbarian" was no longer to be applied to Europeans in China. A year later it became necessary to renew the war to secure a ratification of this treaty, which was only obtained when the sacred capital of the Son of Heaven lay at the mercy of the allied armies.

The United States government had watched the proceedings in China with deep interest, and William B. Reed was sent by President Buchanan to follow the course of events, and to mediate, if that should be possible.

The Opium war,
1839-1842.



ANSON
BURLINGAME.

War with England
and France.

United States the
friend of China.

In its attitude, this country was supported by Russia. The active efforts of Mr. Reed resulted in a new treaty negotiated on the 18th day of June, 1858. Certain provisions of this treaty are of much interest. The first article states:

"There shall be, as there has always been, peace and friendship between the United States of America and the Ta Tsing empire, and between their people respectively. They shall not insult or oppress each other for any trifling cause, so as to produce an estrangement between them, and if any other nation should act unjustly or oppressively the United States will exert their good offices on being informed of the case to bring about an amicable arrangement of the question, thus showing their friendly feeling."

A wise and just treaty.

The treaty names the ports open to American trade, and continues with evident reference to the past experiences of China:

"But said vessels shall not carry on the clandestine and fraudulent trade at other ports of China, not declared to be legal, or along the coasts thereof, and any vessel under the American flag violating this provision shall with her cargo be subject to confiscation to the Chinese government; and any citizen of the United States who shall trade in any contraband article of merchandise shall be subject to be dealt with by the Chinese government, without being entitled to any countenance or protection from that of the United States; and the United States will take measures to prevent their flag from being abused by the subjects of other nations as a cover for the violation of the laws of the empire."

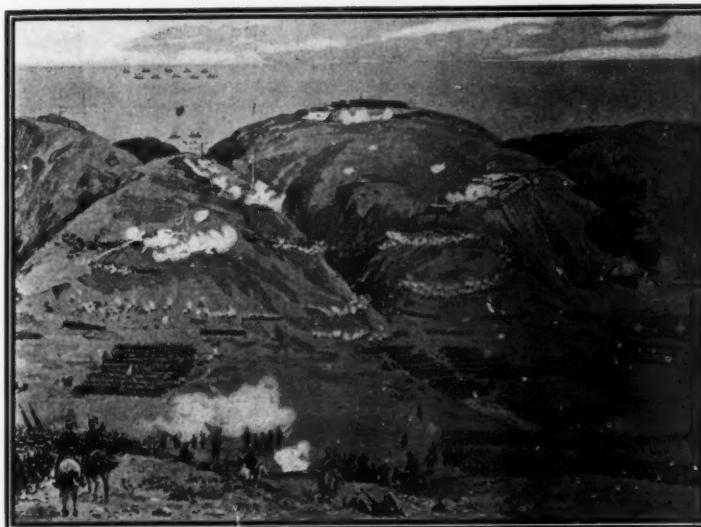
Under this wise and just treaty, which laid the foundations of the friendly relations that have existed, with hardly a break, between the United States and China, our trade with the Celestial empire has grown to large proportions.

The Burlingame mission.

This auspicious beginning of the intercourse of the United States and China was well followed out. For six years prior to 1869 the United States government was represented in China by Anson Burlingame. When about to retire he was offered by the Chinese government one of the most remarkable missions ever entrusted by a government to an alien. He was accredited with exceptional powers as the head of an embassy to eleven of the leading governments of the world, and accomplished much, before his death at St. Petersburg in 1870, to bring about just and friendly treaty relations between China and the Christian nations. The Burlingame treaty with the United States supplemented the Reed treaty in many important particulars. During his labors as Chinese ambassador, Mr. Burlingame was subjected to severe criticism, but this was due to the old prejudice which had made so much trouble between the western nations and China, and which failed to appreciate the broad, just, and intelligent spirit in which he undertook his difficult task. Even at this time China had not recognized the full equality of other nations by admitting their envoys to personal audience with the emperor, but on the 29th day of June, 1873, the Chinese emperor, under the enlightened influence of Prince Kung and his associates, gave personal audience first to the Japanese ambassador, and then to the ministers of Russia, the United States, Great Britain, France, and Italy, with the German secretary as interpreter. The significance of this audience can only be understood by reference to the history of Chinese intercourse with the world outside. It represented the final breaking down of Chinese isolation, and the recognition of the equality of the great powers of the world, and their capacity to treat with China upon equal terms.

Need of men like Burlingame.

Could the era introduced by Mr. Burlingame have continued longer under the direction of such men as he, the present relations of China with the world outside might be very different. Patiently, temperately, and courageously, men of various nations, like Burlingame, Denby, Martin, Hart, Brandt, and many others in humbler places, have labored toward the goal of a better understanding, only to have their work marred by headstrong and unwise men — diplomats and missionaries — who would make over this ancient nation in a day. The story of the dealings of the United States with China and Japan is for the most part an honorable one, and places this country under a special obligation in the present crisis to live up to its own record.



STORMING OF PORT
ARTHUR BY THE
JAPANESE.

(From The Illustrated
London News of Jan. 19,
1895.)

But upon the period of orderly and hopeful progress thus inaugurated War with Japan. broke the storm of the war with Japan. That country felt the impulse of its rush into the arena in the full panoply of a modern state. It wished to try its strength; to bring China into line with itself and to dominate the far East. The long-disputed protectorate of Corea furnished a pretext for a quarrel. War was declared in July, 1894. Before this the world in general had not dreamed of the disproportionate fighting strength of the great, peaceful, unwieldy Chinese empire and its alert, pugnacious adversary. It was believed that China had a tremendous power of endurance which would prolong the war, perhaps until Japan was exhausted.

Never has an estimate been more suddenly disproved. With blow after blow in rapid succession, by sea and land, Japan swept away every pretension of her adversary, and held China at her mercy. On the 17th of April, 1895, by the treaty of Shimonoseki, China ceded to Japan the islands of Formosa and the Pescadores and the Liao-tung peninsula; agreed to open five new ports, including Peking, to Japanese commerce; conceded to the Japanese people the right to erect manufacturing establishments in China; and agreed to pay a war indemnity of about one hundred and fifty million dollars.

Japan's success and remarkable military efficiency secured for her the instant respect of the western nations, but also brought upon her the full force of their jealousy. Russia, in particular, would not allow the rise of a dangerous power that might menace her plans in eastern Asia. As had been done in her own case after she had defeated Turkey, Russia now evoked a combination composed of her submissive ally, France, and her well-disposed neighbor, Germany, to check the aspirations of Japan. These three powers, taking advantage of China's necessities to pose as her friends and helpers, insisted upon a revision of the treaty of Shimonoseki. Japan was compelled to yield all territorial accessions on the mainland, while her European opponents took the guardianship of decrepit China, which she had sought, and seized by diplomacy the territories she had won by the valor and skill of her armies. The treaty of Tokio of May 8, 1895, by which this was accomplished, marked an almost revolutionary change in the eastern situation.

The treaty of Tokio.

CHAPTER XXX.

CHINA SINCE SHIMONOSEKI.

The future of China. What prophet or son of a prophet will attempt, in the present tangled condition of affairs, to forecast the destiny of China? Far Cathay, the golden East which Marco Polo vaguely revealed to Europe nearly seven centuries ago, has opened its Pandora's box of wonders, beautiful and hideous, and the statesmen of the world are staggered by the problems now presented. That a break-up of the old empire that was built by conquest is an imminent possibility, all candid students of the situation must admit. Whether it can be averted in the interest of general peace, by united action of the world powers, and whether any such result could be more than temporary, are questions upon which there is room for wide difference of opinion; and any answers to them can be little more than guesswork.

Is its break-up inevitable?

Two of the most careful observers who have recently studied the situation on the ground, Lord Charles Beresford and Mr. A. R. Colquhoun, see little hope of averting the catastrophe, and plead earnestly for sympathetic action by the two great Anglo-Saxon powers, as the nations that stand for the largest liberty and that have most in common in their ideals of civilization. There was, immediately after the war between Japan and China, a possibility of such concerted action as would have checked the ambitious plans of Russia, Germany, and France, and would have given the Anglo-Saxon influence a strong and useful place in the East. The great raid on China might then have been prevented. It is too late, now that this raid is an accomplished fact. The hesitation of the United States—the great failing of democracy in dealing with foreign affairs—stood in the way at that time. The present shifty policy of Great Britain has alienated Japan, at one time very friendly to the idea of common action with the Anglo-Saxon powers. The island empire is now pursuing an opportunist course, the only one left open, since her main reliances in the western world have shown a disinclination to link their interests with hers.

The international farce in China.

Meanwhile, we have had the remarkable picture of armed forces numbering many thousand men marching on the Chinese capital, preceded and followed by the reiterated declaration, "This is not war." And while Russia is strengthening its hold on Manchuria and acquiring valuable connections in the *hinterland* of central China; while Germany is exploiting Shantung; while France is feeling her way northward from Tongking; while Great Britain is talking of the Yang-tse, with her rivals steadily creeping into the coveted region; while Japan is keeping her eyes on Fukien, we have constant verbal assurances that China is not being partitioned. The whole play would be a farce, if it did not partake so much of the nature of tragedy. It is strange that any one should believe the assertions that are continually made in the face of the facts that belie them.

An impetus given to reform.

The defeat of China at the hands of Japan was a severe blow, and seemed for a while likely to prove a salutary lesson. The young emperor, Kwang Su, always inclined to reform, began to introduce changes which would soon have revolutionized China, and would have done it through the great Chinese engine of conservatism and of progress alike—the elaborate educational system of the country. This had been the stronghold of conservatism; the emperor proceeded to convert it into the chief instrument of progress. The time-honored *memoriter* system of training, which had conserved the ancient traditions, began to give way to scientific education on western models, which the reformers, headed by Kang Yu Wei, Kwang Su's chief adviser, studied as enthusiastically, though not quite so critically and intelligently, as the Japanese had done. This was accompanied by a rapid development of plans for a railway system, and

for the much-needed reorganization of the army, the scandalous inefficiency of which was so plainly shown in the war. For a while the march of progress went on apace, and the old fear of the yellow peril, which had worried the western world until China's weakness was made so painfully apparent, had a revival.

When the reform movement struck the official system, however, an element of interested personal opposition was aroused which mere reforms in system had failed to touch. Chinese officialdom was notoriously corrupt. Mandarins who could not live upon their ridiculously small salaries fattened upon wealth extorted from a patient people, and turned in but a small percentage of receipts to the central government, where in turn much was absorbed in personal fees before the imperial treasury was reached. Such a system must have support in high quarters. Its mainstay in the imperial court was the empress dowager, "the terrible woman" who has towered so menacingly in the background of all Chinese affairs of the last few years. With an unscrupulous *entourage* of Manchu princes, generals, and high officials, bent upon maintaining the old order on which they flourished, she was able to bring about one of the palace revolutions, so common in Asiatic history, get into her power the well-meaning emperor, who is a student, rather than a strong executive, turn out the reformers, and begin the work of reaction. A strong and partially justified anti-foreign sentiment

among a great body of the people who were attached to old customs, bound by old superstitions, and actuated by the spirit of the old days of exclusiveness, came to the support of this personal and official opposition to reform, and was fostered by it. Upon soil thus prepared grew the revolt or Boxer rising of 1900, a wild anti-foreign movement closely allied with the reactionary party of the dowager empress and the disgruntled officials of the old régime.

The forcing from Japan of the treaty of Tokio, nominally in the interest of defeated China, was really a signal for the European powers to begin their raid. Since Japan had proved that the dreaded yellow dragon was fangless, why should they not profit by information obtained at no cost to themselves? If they were to furnish credit for discredited old China, should they not receive a *quid pro quo*? The Japanese armies were ordered to move out, and the Russians, initiators and chief beneficiaries of the work of the international relief committee, moved in. So later did Russia's chief partner in this transaction, Germany. With the powerful fortifications of Port Arthur, commanding the Gulf of Pechili and Corea bay, Russia had a strong strategic position, with reference to Japan, China, and Corea. Nor was this to be an isolated station.

Reaction led by the empress dowager.



Provincial Boundaries. Projected Railways in Operation or Building. Telegraph Lines.

MAP OF CHINA,
SHOWING THE
HEART OF THE
EMPIRE.

Raid of the western powers.

Russia's masterly management.

Russia carefully maintains her lines of communication at each step of her advance. By an agreement of June, 1895, China borrowed of Russia, through the Russo-Chinese bank of St. Petersburg, four million francs at four per cent, payable in thirty-six years. By the treaty of St. Petersburg, December 26, 1896, the Eastern Chinese Railway Company obtained the right to build through Manchuria a branch of the Siberian railway, to develop mines along the line of the railway, and to carry on other industrial enterprises. The treaty provided that only Chinese and Russians can hold the stock of this company; but the Eastern Chinese Railway Company is understood to be another name for the Russo-Chinese bank, and the provision allowing the tsar to protect the railway with military police, gives a pretext for a practical military occupation of the rich Manchurian province. Further agreements have given Russia concessions for the building of railroads from Moukden in Manchuria to Peking, into the provinces about the capital, and southward to the important commercial center of Hankow on the Yangtse. If the Chinese problem really is one of railways, this last is an invasion of Great Britain's supposed sphere; but the latter's protest was effectual only in causing the transfer of the concession to a French-Belgian syndicate, at the instance of the all-powerful Russo-Chinese bank.



NATIVE CHINESE HOUSEBOAT.

Germany.

The Shantung agreement.

By former activities in China and the developments since the treaty of Tokio, the supposed spheres of influence of the different powers that claim such spheres have been fairly well defined. That of Russia is plainly Manchuria, perhaps also Mongolia, but it can never safely be predicted that Russia will stop at any given boundary. From her railway policy, her intention to be a predominant influence in China is plain; and her course in the recent troubles has been so thoroughly Russian, made up of military severity and diplomatic liberality, that it may be predicted that only a remarkable revolution in conditions will shake the influence she has acquired by so much astuteness. Germany, hitherto acting in harmony with Russia, though lately representing an opposite policy in Chinese affairs, holding actual possession of the port of Kiau-chau and a neutral zone around it, has valuable concessions which give to her practical industrial control of Shantung province, one of the richest in mining resources of any in China. The Chinese-German agreement, as published in the Peking *Official Gazette*, March 6, 1898, contains this section, which explains the German relation to this district:

"If the Chinese government or individual Chinese subjects should at any time have plans for the development of Shantung, for the execution of which foreign capital is required, they shall in the first place apply to the German capitalists for it. Similarly, in the event of machines or other material being required, German capitalists shall in the first instance be applied to. Only when German capitalists or manufacturers have refused their assistance, shall the Chinese be entitled to apply to other nations."

Within this region upon which it holds so tight a grip industrially, Germany proposes to build a circuit system of railways embracing the mining district and connecting Kiau-chau with Tsi-nan on the Yellow

river. Through this connection it will have commercial control of that important river valley. Germany has not acted in the recent troubles with the wise reserve of Russia, and can hardly stand in the most favorable position with relation to any government that may finally be established in China, but, as has been pointed out in a previous chapter,¹ German brutality in dealing with other races usually gives way after a while to the better and more persistent traits of the German character, and so it may be in China.

South of the German sphere we find Great Britain at Shanghai looking longingly up the fertile and rich valley of the Yang-tse, of which she is not nearly so sure now as she was four or five years ago. Again, from Hongkong Great Britain keeps in close commercial touch with the Canton district, from the beginning the most important center of European trade with China. On the extreme southeastern corner of the empire France holds Tongking, after protracted warfare with China, and is reaching back for influence in Yunnan and Szechuen provinces, cutting across the lines of communication between British Burma and the British sphere in China.

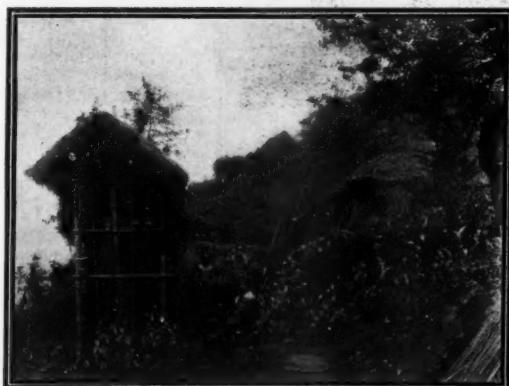
It will be seen that these spheres of influence have their bases on the sea, as might be expected, since the interest of the nations in China is essentially commercial. Russia has been working toward the sea, for reasons connected with the historical policy of her expansion. The

Great Britain.

France.

The coast, the rivers, and the hinterland.

CHINESE PEASANTS AND THEIR DWELLING.



ment of closed spheres, a contingency always before the minds of the world's statesmen. This influence in the interior is to be secured through an intelligently active consular system and through the development of railways, which are the real key to the situation. Here Great Britain is weak. While her rivals have pursued a systematic, continuous policy, hers has been disconnected and hesitating. The result of a continuance of international competition in China as at present conducted will be very unfavorable to Great Britain, which has lost prestige in the East steadily since the treaties of Shimonoseki and Tokio. The open door, for which Great Britain has always stood, is essential to the preservation of her commercial importance in the far East, and the integrity of the Chinese empire under a reform administration is its best guarantee.

Germany seems at present to occupy an advantageous position in China, but unless she is willing to throw aside her well-considered policy of industrial and commercial expansion, with the minimum of political entanglements, she too must look to the open door and to the reorganization of China for her greatest advantage. The German merchant and manufacturer have proved that they have nothing to fear from fair com-

Germany and the open door.

¹ March, Chapter XXI., "The Scramble for Africa."

petition. That this is recognized by the able statesman, Count von Bülow, who now stands, as imperial chancellor, nearest to the emperor, is shown by his note of July 11, 1900, to the German government. In it he said:

"We must protect our ideal and material interests with our utmost energy. We have no desire for a division of China and do not seek special advantages. The imperial government is convinced that the maintenance of an understanding with the powers is a necessary condition to the restoration of peace and order in China. Its policy will continue this purpose foremost."

Position of the United States.

The immediate circumstances have changed somewhat since Count von Bülow wrote these words, but the great facts that should govern nations remain unchanged. The United States is on record in the note of Secretary Hay of July 3, 1900, in which, after a clear statement of the purpose of this government in the then existing emergency at Peking, he added:

"It is, of course, too early to forecast the means of attaining this last result (the prevention of a spread of disorders to the other provinces and of a recurrence of such disasters), but the policy of the government of the United States is to seek a solution which may bring about permanent safety and peace in China, preserve Chinese territorial and administrative entity, protect all rights guaranteed to the friendly powers by treaty and international law, and safeguard for the world the principle of equal and impartial trade with all parts of the Chinese empire."

This country can stand on no better platform than that here laid down. The greatest obstacle in the way of the settlement of this world-interesting problem of China is found in the cross purposes in which most of the parties are involved. The jealousies of Europe have been carried by the European powers over into Asia, where Britain and Russia are arrayed against each other in sharpest rivalry, with the other powers balancing their action between these two as interested policy at any given moment seems to dictate. Japan must either antagonize Russia or join with her in a division of the spoils. The hope of China lies in the reform party, headed by men like the exiled Kang Yu Wei, and the great southern viceroy, Chang Chih Tung, but this party is strongly nationalistic and patriotic. Its hope is a reorganized and unified China, and it cannot act with the foreign powers so long as they persist in a policy of aggression and partition. This intelligent and progressive section of the Chinese people must antagonize foreign influence as at present exerted, along with the ignorant retrogressive section, represented by the Boxers. The play of cross purposes is thus complete within and without the empire.

The United States alone of the great powers stands free from all these entanglements, with a clean, consistent, honest record, so far as China is concerned. It alone has given China no reason to doubt the sincerity and friendliness of its intentions in the past. It alone cannot be suspected by the European powers of ulterior motives, so long as it pursues its historic Chinese policy. It thus occupies a unique position among the powers, peculiarly qualifying it to take the leadership in solving China's problem justly and peaceably; letting the European powers understand that it is prepared to maintain every position, knowing that position to be right. This might mean some display of force; it would not mean war. In a strong and just policy in behalf of the integrity of China on

The part the United States may play.



A CHINESE SCHOLAR.

a national basis, the United States would have the support of the reform party in China, of Japan, of Great Britain, and, it is more than likely, of Germany, when that country had taken thought of what would be gained by such a course, as against the risks attending the policy of grab. Enlightened selfishness would come to the aid of such a policy, a noble chapter would be added to the story of United States diplomacy, and the eastern powers, Japan and the newly strengthened China, would be bound by ties of gratitude and interest to this country, to its great probable advantage. This is what might be. The issue unfortunately awaits the clearing of the sorry muddle in Peking and the shifting chances of American politics. The right path for the United States is clear, and the administration has plainly marked it. The nation has men who can carry it out. Will it be done?

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE WORLD SITUATION AS IT APPEARS FROM THE EAST.

It needs only a review of the conditions existing in Asia at this time to show that in that continent the world's international rivalries have been brought to a head, as a consequence of long centuries of progressive development in the mobile West, which now reacts upon the stationary East. For three centuries European influence has been creeping over Asia, with a pace rapidly accelerating during the last fifty years. This influence and the interests that accompany it have gathered more and more about the populous Chinese empire, which stands in a marked degree for that immovable conservative element which the progressive spirit of the world has from the beginning of history refused to tolerate or leave at rest. Progress, movement, is the unavoidable law of life among races as in the simpler biologic evolutions. Thus there has become entangled in the Chinese complications every thread of the warp and woof of international relations, and a clearing house of the world's exchanges has been opened in the ancient capital of the Manchu emperors by the uprising of a Chinese secret society.

The international confluence in Asia.

The interest, therefore, in the management of negotiations by the world powers with China is even deeper and larger than may appear at first glance. The situation is grave almost beyond parallel. The semi-barbarism of far oriental civilization has created a situation unique in history. To the question as to the outcome that is on everyone's lips the most common answer is a "world war." Every condition exists in the extent and barbarity of the outrage against the whole family of Christian nations for bringing on a war of the world against China; and after that the division of the spoils would seem likely to bring on a war of the western nations among themselves. Nor has the barbarity of the Chinese been much deeper in tone than that shown by some of the representatives of the Christian powers in their retaliatory measures. The troops of Germany, France, and Russia, and to some extent of other nations, in China have harried the country, robbed and destroyed, and made war on defenseless old men and women, for no apparent purpose but senseless revenge. We have even heard Christian missionaries crying for vengeance, though fortunately they are not numerous nor representative. The military conduct of the foreigners in China has hardly been strengthened by their diplomatic management. The astute Chinese have closely watched the disagreements of the powers, and have taken advantage of them, just as the Turkish government has done for years. The power undoubtedly lies for the present in the mailed hand, but the history of mankind shows that the power of the mailed hand does not determine the great movements of nations; it is only an incident thereto. No force succeeds that tries to overcome the normal movements of the world.

Wider significance of affairs in China.

The mailed hand.

THE CHARTERED
BANK OF INDIA AND
CHINA, SHANGHAI.



An opportune time
for observation.

Back to nationality
and national expansion.

The real world
powers.

Many failures in history prove this. Napoleon's is the most notable instance of marvelously rapid achievement in certain directions, coupled with powerlessness to overcome the greater tendencies of his age.

At this moment when the western nations have reached their *Ultima Thule* and engaged in a wild war-dance or a reckless game of bluff over the possible spoils, it may be well to pass in review the movements of a half century, from the standpoint of the situation presented in the Orient, with a view to inquiring whether they offer any data by which the present and the near future may be judged. Looking back over the events we have had under survey, we find them referable, as was indicated at the outset, to the development of nationality, the great goal of modern politics; and to the resulting tendency toward national expansion. Not the unity of the world, but the unity and consolidation of the nation, with control or influence in as large a part of the world as possible, is the aim of modern peoples. In attaining this end scant regard is shown for lesser peoples or those without a well-developed capacity for political organization. Consolidation into so-called great powers is the order of the day in politics, as it is the order of the day in industrial enterprises. It is a necessity of the world's growth. Order and progress demand it.

The general conditions governing these developments have been pointed out, and their working examined in some detail. The new fact that we seek from this standpoint on the shore of the farthest sea, is the special conditions that are likely to determine the course of each of the great factors in the international problem. Six great powers are recognized in the European concert; but they are not all world powers, for reasons which have been alluded to in a previous chapter.¹ National conditions handicap three of them, and they are likely to be distanced in the work of the world. While there is in France a vigorous and hopeful younger generation, of whom M. Pierre de Coubertin is an admirable representative, having strong hopes for the future of the republic and laboring to realize them, the present condition of France is not such as to warrant assigning to it its old rank among nations. Its future in the affairs of nations depends upon the capacity that it shows for revival and reform when the process of political readjustment is completed.

¹ Chapter XXVI.

Italy is going through a similar process of political readjustment, attended by added difficulties. Its resources are not such that it can be classed with the world powers. It is too dependent upon alliances; and the world power of the twentieth century must be able to compel alliances, not be dependent on them. As a world power it must stand alone. France today is helpless without Russia; Italy without the Triple Alliance, or Great Britain. The impossibility of Austria-Hungary as a world power is apparent from its political construction. Position as a world power under modern conditions rests primarily upon nationality; and a congeries of clashing nationalities like the Dual Monarchy cannot operate effectively outside its own immediate neighborhood. There remain in Europe three powers, Great Britain, Germany, and Russia, which give every evidence of a continuance of vigor and of great expanding energy that stamps them at once as true world powers. To them must be added in Asia, Japan, and in America, the United States. In the spirit, aims, and resources, of these five states as probable arbiters of the world's destiny in the twentieth century, there must be the deepest interest.

Territory and commercial opportunity are the two most effective modern motives of expansion. The desire for territory at the present time has but three sources—the rounding out of a national domain, as illustrated by the growth of the United States from ocean to ocean, and that of Russia across the great plains of northern and central Asia; the need of relief for a crowding population; and the control of regions for commercial exploitation. In the last case territorial ambition becomes subordinate to the second great motive of expansion. Of the five world powers Great Britain is the only one that has stood in conspicuous need of new territory for surplus population. In this respect her needs are now well provided for. The maintenance of the integrity of her Asiatic and African possessions may cause a continuance of that fruitful excuse for trouble with one's neighbors, the search for a scientific boundary; but otherwise Great Britain has no need of added territory, and will be better off to care for what she has. The Japanese islands are in their best portions densely populated, but the wonderful capacity of the Japanese and Chinese people to make the earth yield its utmost, makes the territorial question one not immediately pressing in the island empire. The question may arise, however, in the near future with a cessation of civil wars and a development of peaceful industrial life. The German empire still has room for its people, but some portions of it are crowded, like most of the old world, and, as has been shown, the emigration problem has been much in the minds of German statesmen in the past thirty years.

To three of these powers the primary question in world affairs is one of trade. Great Britain, Germany, and the United States are preëminently commercial powers. They are doubtless moved in their world activities by complex motives, but that which is the mainspring of all the rest is the insistent demand of an increasing commerce, the result of a rapidly growing industrial life, which has behind its demands the material interests of the masses who labor. In nations that have already recognized their democratic status and mission a demand with such support is not to be denied. The political machinery of the democratic state responds to the economic needs of the people as the mercury responds to the temperature. Nature and science have equipped these peoples to compete with the world successfully in production, and they are favorably situated for distribution. Great Britain has the integrity of her scattered empire to defend; otherwise their interests are common and may be described as world peace and the open door of trade. They have nothing to gain and much to lose by war; they have a great work to do in peace. In Asia, Germany wishes to build her railroads and to extend her trade. Her rivals will meet her best in a fair field. Applying the principle to China, the integrity of the empire and a fair field for competition is

Motives of expansion, territory and trade.

Three great commercial powers.

World peace and the open door.

better for all parties than the jealous shutting up of certain districts, with a continuance of European rivalries and constant friction with a large discontented native population. Great Britain has enough of that on her hands in the possession of India and the relations growing out of it.

The United States.

The United States with its vast resources is now a powerful competitor of the older nations in the markets of the world. It occupies a peculiarly advantageous position for world commerce, facing as it does both the East and the West. It needs no territory, only a few stations on the routes of its trade. It needs open markets in the regions where it seeks to extend its trade, and a better commercial understanding with other nations, through differential tariffs or reciprocal commercial treaties.

These things seem plain, but Russia cannot be included in this category of powers whose primary world interest is commercial. From the beginning of her history Russia, owing to her position, has pursued a course of development apart. National self-preservation, after her experience of the Tatar yoke, compelled what the physical feature of the continent had made so natural, the eastward advance across Asia. The same insistent law made necessary the finding of natural frontiers, the incorporation of the disorganized nomad tribes, and, finally, access to the open sea. Meanwhile this great coun-

try remains but imperfectly developed, not ready like its rivals to take its place in a free world competition. The industrial development of a large and comparatively ignorant population, in order to secure for it the same industrial independence which has been wrought out in the United States, is its next great problem. Russia wants no open door in her domains, once she has secured the necessary materials to go on with her own development. Russia, however, does want peace. The late effort of the tsar to initiate the international peace congress is a striking indication of what Russia, with all her powerful armament, deems good national policy. Will her acquisitions of territory and her push for the southern sea involve her in a struggle with Great Britain, which, for the advantage of both, should be averted? Or will the ambitious spirit of France, helpless to do aught alone, draw her powerful ally into more aggressive action than Russia's best interests warrant? To the second question it is safe to give a negative answer; the first is more doubtful. Will this great empire be satisfied when it has developed a natural territory, or will it in the pride of its own greatness and the oriental love of conquest seek greater expansion? It is in this possibility that the menace of Russia's growth really lies.

Some questions that Russia suggests.

Japan the world's puzzle.



A THIBETAN FARMHOUSE.

Japan is the puzzle of the world, so far as her national aims and purposes are concerned. In determining the position of this new arrival in the family of nations we have no instrument that is adjusted to the conditions. We do not yet quite understand the temper of the Japanese.

They have shown a wonderful facility in adapting new methods to their own conditions, but politically we have yet to become acquainted with them. Do they desire acquisitions of territory? We know that they wish for control at least in Corea; we know that if China is partitioned, they will expect their share; but we also know that they wish the partition of China to be prevented. Whatever their territorial ambitions may be, they do not at present seem likely to clash with the interests of any power save Russia. That Japan will be a commercial power is certain, and in this regard her interests will be identical with those of Great Britain, Germany, and the United States. The greatest doubt in regard to Japan is as to that unknown quantity, the national spirit, which in so eager, ambitious, and warlike a people may carry far.

Unfortunately the course of human events cannot be definitely charted by such analyses of motives as these. The effect of alliances with minor powers; of popular excitement; of action initiated by some individual involving the gravest international consequences; of eruptions of untamed barbaric races; of the restlessness of smaller and weaker peoples under the heavy pressure of the great powers,—these and other causes incidental to human nature may

Possible complications.

cause deviations from what seem to be natural courses. We can only judge probable directions by the larger considerations that are likely to control action if not interfered with.

There is still a possibility for China, though it has become very remote. A Chinese possibility. If partition is averted, and the reform party obtains control in the ancient empire, it may happen that there will arise a strong industrial power that will make itself felt in the world by force of numbers, solidity, and patient labor. The industrial possibilities of the Chinese are well understood. That they will attain a strong political organization seems unlikely.

The aims and purposes of the great rivals are so abstract, so much a matter of judgment that it is not easy to make them clear and real. Their actual resources, their equipment for competition, involve more concrete and ascertainable facts.

CHAPTER XXXII.

ELEMENTS OF STRENGTH OF THE WORLD POWERS.

The position and relations of the great political forces of the world are so clearly before us, and the possibilities of grand combinations in behalf of peace, or of disastrous clashes, resulting in world-wide war, are so apparent, that the resources of the world powers in peace and war become of the utmost interest and importance. In measuring its power to carry out its will against possible rivals a nation must consider two elements—initial momentum, the efficient force that it can bring to bear with promptness and certainty, and staying power, its probable endurance in case of protracted war or economic rivalry. It must also



A HALT IN THIBET.

carefully measure the strength of its adversaries in the same directions. These two things, the power to do what is necessary quickly and thoroughly, and the capacity for patient endurance and persistence of effort, are the primary elements of strength of the nation in action, in peace or war.

Value of an efficient executive for initial action.

The initial momentum of a state in war depends upon the efficiency of its political organization for prompt and decisive action, upon its army and navy, with all pertaining thereto, and upon the incidental advantages of positions occupied. Industrial competition is not so dependent upon initial momentum at any given time, but the capacity to meet special demands is, in a somewhat similar way, very largely aided by intelligent, scientific government direction, by a thorough and efficient organization of industry for production and distribution, and by favorable geographical situation. The elder Romans recognized the need of prompt and positive leadership in time of war, and suspended the cumbrous machinery of the republic in favor of an autocratic dictatorship, which sometimes overstepped the due bounds that were assigned to it. The Russian autocracy is the most perfect of modern governments from this point of view. A single unlimited ruler, with every resource of a great nation at command, and surrounded by competent, trained advisers, each a specialist in his field, can accomplish almost any task. The German government is organized as to the executive so as to secure high efficiency of action. The war powers of the emperor do not permit him to enter upon offensive war without the consent of the Federal Council, which is likely to be a conservative force, but in case of the necessity for defensive war arising, he can act, as any executive should, with all necessary freedom, and his control of the military resources of the empire when war has once been entered upon is all that can be desired.

Russia and Germany.

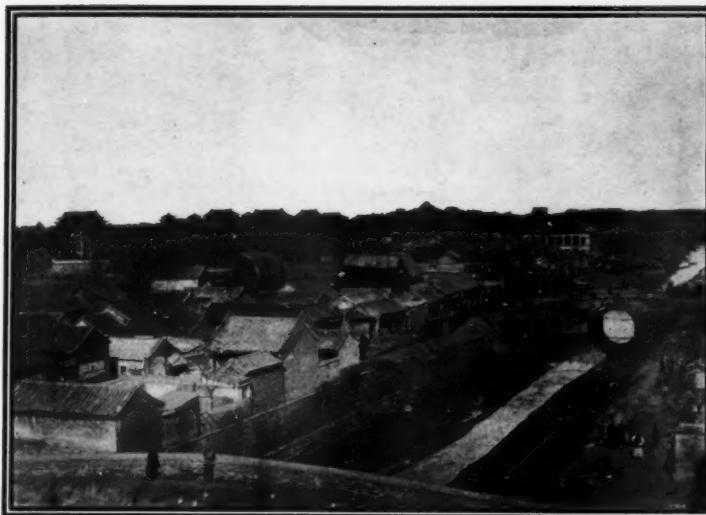
Under the British parliamentary system the government, backed by a majority party, is in a position to act promptly, but it is hampered, as has been seen of late, by the bureau system and the exigencies of party organization. Only in case of a great national struggle, in which the heart of the people is unitedly enlisted, so that the government is unreservedly supported in the most positive measures, can real initial



CARRYING BALED TEA TO THE FRONTIER, WESTERN CHINA.

Great Britain and the United States.

efficiency be expected of the British system. Such a self-realization is not likely, with the English people, to come quickly enough to make possible that quick and vigorous stroke which is often half the battle. The same is true to an even greater degree of the United States. Its government was organized for peace, with every safeguard, necessary and unnecessary, against the development of militarism. The result is a military system so burdened with red tape, so dependent upon the legislative branch of the government, and hence so influenced by politics, that its efficiency is seriously impaired. Only before a great crisis are these conditions likely to be changed. The Spanish and South African wars have distinctly shown these conditions in the military administration of the United States and Great Britain. Only the inferior strength



FROM THE CITY
WALL OF PEKING,
SHOWING THE
BRITISH LEGATION.

of their opponents saved both countries from disaster, if Great Britain can be said to have escaped disaster in the long and costly struggle in which she is still engaged. The success of Prussia in the Seven Weeks' war against Austria and in the Franco-Prussian war is a good illustration of the effect of an efficient executive for war purposes. Never was the value of initial momentum better illustrated. The first Napoleon, too, achieved his great successes entirely through the development of this quality. It was when Arthur Wellesley put staying power against the characteristic Napoleonic tactics in the trenches of Torres Vedras that Europe learned how mere swift action might be overcome.

I shall consider later the military and naval resources of the world powers, the largest element, perhaps, of their initial efficiency for war. Advantages of position.

The advantages of position hardly need full discussion, as they have been practically considered in previous chapters. The United States and Great Britain together occupy an exceptionally strong position, holding in unquestioned possession the entire North American and Australian continents, and valuable island and continental territories the world over. Because of the wide extent of their territories and the importance to them of ocean communication the call to both of these nations to be great sea powers, if they would maintain their national strength and vigor, seems to be imperative. Great Britain long ago recognized this. The United States is coming slowly and reluctantly to a realization of a fact long urged by able and far-sighted men. As opponents Great Britain and the United States might strike each other very serious blows. The long line of the Canadian frontier is not an easy one to defend, and Britain's naval power would be able to hammer the Atlantic coast cities to the demoralization of their activities. The United States is, however, impregnable to any attack so far as final results are concerned, as long as its people retain their courage and vigor,—as long, in fact, as the national *morale* is not seriously impaired. It is capable of sustaining itself for an indefinite period, its resources are so great and its territory so well consolidated. Moreover, it is beginning to obtain control of important strategic positions commanding the approaches to the continent. With cables and an adequate navy, Hawaii, Porto Rico, and other stations yet to be acquired in the Caribbean, will be of inestimable advantage as outposts, while the coming isthmian canal would certainly be held at all

Strength of the
United States.

IN THE UPPER
GORGES OF THE
YANG-TSE, CHINA,
WHERE GREAT
BRITAIN, FRANCE,
AND RUSSIA MAY
COME INTO
COLLISION.



hazards by this country in case of war with a foreign power. No nation ever came through so severe an ordeal as the Civil war with its resources so little impaired and with so great an impulse to future development. If this could be, after such bitter internecine strife, it may well be believed that the united nation could defend itself in war against a foreign foe.

**Britain's strength
and weakness.**

Great Britain, if left to meet one of her powerful rivals alone, has a different and more difficult problem. Her widely scattered possessions, while giving her a foothold in every part of the world, and points from which to conduct operations against her enemies, impose upon her heavy responsibilities in the way of defense. A strong alliance, or an invincible navy, would be an absolute necessity to her in any struggle with one of the world powers. Russia, on the other hand, has her vast territory well within control. Her defense, as has been said in an earlier chapter, is along interior lines. Her connections have been carefully studied and scientifically arranged. Nature defends her northern border; only her southern boundary and her precious contact with the sea need to give her care. A moderate naval equipment can do what is necessary in the way of defense, leaving any surplus naval force for offensive action. Meanwhile, from her own territory, within direct railway and telegraphic communication with St. Petersburg and Moscow, she can attack her principal rival in a most vulnerable point. Territorially, the most advantageously placed of the world powers today are Russia and the United States. They occupy the strongest positions for offense, defense, or self-maintenance. Russia's greatest weakness in this respect is the backwardness of her industrial development. Her natural resources are in most respects sufficient for self-support, but the state of her population is not such as to utilize them. This is one of the strongest reasons why peace for a few years is very desirable for Russia. She is rapidly making her position well-nigh impregnable, but the task is not completed.

Russia.

Germany has far less territory to guard than her great rivals, but on the other hand her lands join those of the rival states east, west, and south, and there are no natural boundaries. As has been shown, her power depends more upon a systematic development of the national resources and prompt support of every national enterprise abroad, than upon the acquisition of extensive territories. Close neighborhood in Europe and Asia gives Germany and Russia reasons for remaining on terms

Germany.

of friendship. Germany's predominating influence in central and western Europe, the need that Austria-Hungary and Italy have of her powerful friendship, adds to the strength of her position.

But after all, in the long run, the nation with the greatest energy plus the greatest endurance will win in any competition, whether it is carried on by armies of soldiers and fleets of war or by armies of labor and fleets of commerce. The elements that make up the staying power of a nation are less easily analyzed and stated than those that contribute to what I have called the initial momentum. There is first and most important the character of the people, their capacity for doing and enduring. Staying power is not simply the capacity for patient endurance. If this were all it might be conceded at once that the silent, unambitious mass of the Russian peasantry excel all people, except the Chinese. But against this we have the strong, determined, persistent activity of the Teutonic races,—German, English, and American—peoples that have always shown a steady determination and resourcefulness in the face of difficulty, and that spirit which never owns defeat and hence is never defeated. Of the Japanese we know less, but there is that in their history which leads to the belief that while they are so prompt and alert in action, they would show in difficulty and peril much of that quality of patient endurance which belongs in so marked a degree to the Asiatic races. Clearly, from the whole course of their national histories, this most valuable quality has had much to do with bringing the five world powers to their leadership.

But there are other factors besides this of national character that are necessary to make a nation permanently successful in the struggle for successful existence. Territory is one of these. While the situation of the territorial possessions of a nation has much to do with its ability to take the initiative to advantage in the event of the breaking out of conflict with another power, the physiography and natural resources of the national domain, and the industrial development of those resources have much more to do with the ability of the people to carry on armed conflict successfully or to endure the more continuous strain of industrial rivalry. In a study of the comparison thus suggested there is material on which volumes of statistics and observation might be presented, but some light may be thrown on this subject by a brief consideration of the relative resources of the world powers in certain important directions.

There are three products of the earth upon which, to an extent that is almost startling, under modern conditions, the fortunes of nations turn. They are coal, gold, and iron. Coal turns the wheels of industry and commerce, and furnishes the motive force of the great naval engines of modern warfare. Gold, because of its many valuable qualities, is the indispensable basis of the monetary systems of the world. Iron in its various forms enters into every material part of life. To cut off the supply of these would paralyze the world until science had found substitutes for them. The possession of them in large quantities and the power to make them available constitute important elements of national strength.

The coal fields of the world are estimated to contain an area of 471,800 square miles. Of this an area of 200,000 square miles is credited to China and Japan, while 194,000 is found in the United States. The balance is distributed as follows: India, 35,000; Russia, 27,000; United Kingdom, 9,000; Germany, 3,600; France, 1,800; other countries, 1,400. Two facts are strikingly shown by these figures. One is the advantage of the United States among the world powers; the other is the importance which vast and rich coal fields give to China in the eyes of the European powers whose coal supply is gradually failing them. The year 1899 saw the United States jump to the front as the heaviest coal producer of the world and also enter the market as an exporter, selling to Japan, Italy, Great Britain, Germany, and Russia. That the United States should sell coal to Great Britain seems indeed like carrying

Need of staying power and its basis.

Active, not passive, endurance wins.

Physiography, natural resources, and industrial development.

Coal, gold, and iron.

The world's coal supply.

coals to Newcastle. The reason is that in England the mines have been so heavily worked that operations now have to be carried on at such depths that the coal cannot be taken out and delivered at British posts like Malta at prices low enough to compete with those offered by the American exporter. The actual production of coal in eight of the largest producing countries in 1899 was, in metric tons:

United States	228,717,579	France	32,779,965
United Kingdom	223,606,668	Belgium	21,917,740
Germany	135,824,427	Russia	13,000,000
Austria-Hungary	36,000,000	Japan	6,650,000

Increasing demand
and diminishing
supply.

The coal problem today, as it affects international affairs, is found in a steadily increasing demand by every progressive nation, and a limited and rapidly diminishing supply. The United States alone need have no anxiety in this respect for some generations. Meanwhile, in China are enormous deposits of coal, both anthracite and bituminous, unexploited, and not likely to be by the Chinese unless there is a radical change in their ideas and methods. The effect of these facts upon the European attitude toward China may be readily seen. Access to an adequate coal supply is to some of them, notably Russia and Germany, a matter of self-preservation.



REVIEW QUESTIONS.

CHAPTER XXIX.

1. How did China become a great Mongol empire? 2. What policy was adopted by the Ming dynasty, and when? 3. When did the Manchu dynasty come into power? 4. What has been the nature of modern European intercourse with China? 5. What early connection had France and Russia with China? 6. How did the Chinese point of view make a misunderstanding with England very easy? 7. What was the cause of the Opium war? 8. What treaties resulted from this war? 9. What caused the war of 1857, and what resulted from it? 10. Describe the treaty of 1858 between the United States and China. 11. What was the Burlingame mission? 12. What were the causes and results of the war between Japan and China? 13. What was the treaty of Tokio?

CHAPTER XXX.

1. What international conditions are apparent today in China? 2. What attempts at reform were made in China after her defeat by Japan? 3. Why did a reaction set in? 4. How has Russia profited by China's difficulties? 5. Describe Germany's present position in China. 6. Describe that of England and of France. 7. What difficulties surround the Chinese reform party? 8. How can the United States help to solve the Chinese problem?

CHAPTER XXXI.

1. How has history shown that "the mailed hand" is not always all-powerful? 2. Why are the destinies of the world today apparently in the hands of five great nations? 3. What motives induce nations to seek territory? 4. How serious is the question of overpopulation in each of the following countries: England, Germany, and Japan? 5. Why is it best for them that China should not be divided? 6. How is Russia's situation different from theirs? 7. What questions does Russia's position suggest? 8. Why is Japan's future a puzzle? 9. What possible complications prevent any clear forecast of the future of any of these states?

CHAPTER XXXII.

1. Why are Germany and Russia especially well equipped for leadership in time of war? 2. How have Great Britain and the United States shown their weakness in this direction? 3. What advantages has the United States from its position? 4. What has Russia? 5. Why is Great Britain's position more precarious? 6. What conditions make Germany's position strong? 7. How does the character of the people affect a country's destiny? 8. How are the different nations affected by the world's coal supply?



Search Questions.

1. Where is Bactria? 2. What are the chief rivers of China? 3. How do they compare with other great rivers of the world? 4. Who was Arthur Wellesley? 5. What was the struggle of Torres Vedras?



XX. CHINA.

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TOPICAL ANALYSIS.

THE STORM CENTER.

China and the ancient world.
 The great Mongol empire.
 The exclusive policy.
 Modern intercourse with China.
 France and Russia.
 England.
 Politics and trade separate in China.
 The Opium war.
 Commercial treaties.
 War with England and France.
 Friendly attitude of the United States.
 The work of Anson Burlingame.
 The war with Japan.

CHAPTER XXIX.

CHINA SINCE SHIMONOSEKI.

The future of China.
 The reform movement.
 Reaction led by the empress dowager.
 Raid of the western powers after the treaty of Tokio.
 The spheres of influence.
 Coast, rivers, and *hinterland*.
 The position of the United States.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE WORLD SITUATION AS IT APPEARS FROM THE EAST.

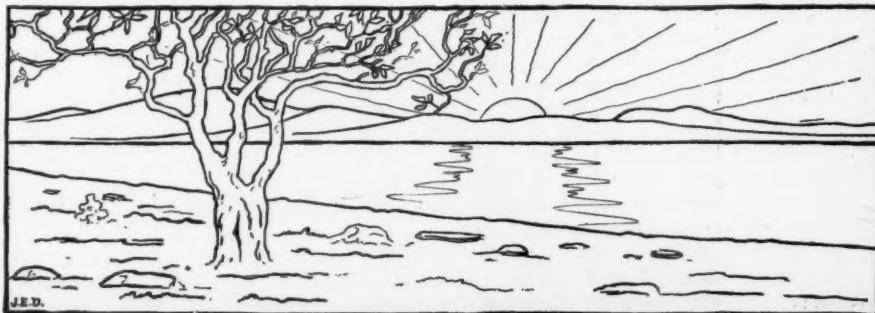
The international confluence in Asia.
 Wider significance of Chinese affairs.
 An opportune time for observation.
 The real world powers —
 Britain, Germany, Russia, the United States, Japan.
 Three preëminently commercial —
 Britain, Germany, United States.
 World peace and the open door.
 The aims of Russia.
 Japan, the world's puzzle.
 Possible complication.

CHAPTER XXXI.

ELEMENTS OF STRENGTH OF THE WORLD POWERS.

Initial momentum and staying power.
 For initial action an efficient executive, army and navy, and advantageous positions.
 The executive in the world powers.
 Advantages of position.
 Strength of the United States.
 Great Britain, Russia, and Germany.
 Staying power and its basis.
 National character.
 National territory, its physiography, resources, and their development.
 Coal, gold, and iron.
 The coal supply of the world.

CHAPTER XXXII.



A READING JOURNEY IN the ORIENT

Summary of Preceding Chapters.

[The voyage from New York to Gibraltar, scenes in Tangier and Algiers, and the arrival at Alexandria were described in the October issue. In November, Alexandria, the trip to Upper Egypt, and scenes along the Nile were the subjects considered. In December, "Down the Nile to Cairo" was the topic. "Modern Palestine and Syria—from Port Said to Beirut" constituted the region visited in January. In February Asia Minor was visited. "Constantinople" was the subject in March. In April the Greek Islands were visited in "A Cruise in the Aegean."]

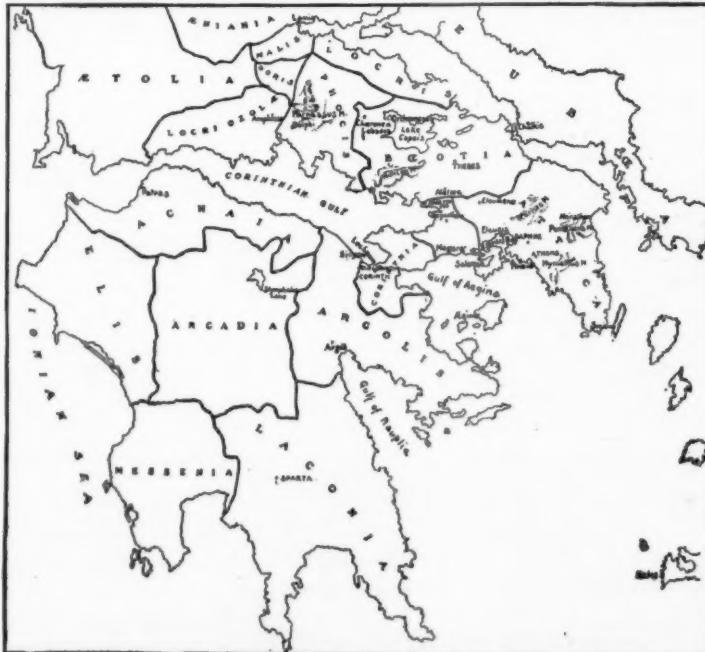
VIII. ATTICA, BEEOTIA, AND CORINTH.

BY RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

(Director of the American School at Athens.)

 THE ideal way of approaching Athens is by the Sacred Way from Eleusis over the Pass of Daphne. One's first view of Athens is then that so much praised, but not overpraised, by Chateaubriand, and certainly the best view that one can get of Athens from a little distance. But all visitors do approach Athens either by rail from Patras or through Piraeus. Although the former approach

MAP.



Approach to
Athens.

is the usual one, the latter is much more impressive. It is true that the superb scenery across the Corinthian gulf, comprehending Parnassus and its still higher western neighbors and double-peaked Helicon, might make one prefer the less impressive approach to Athens itself. But I can never lose the impression made upon me when eight years ago I sailed along past

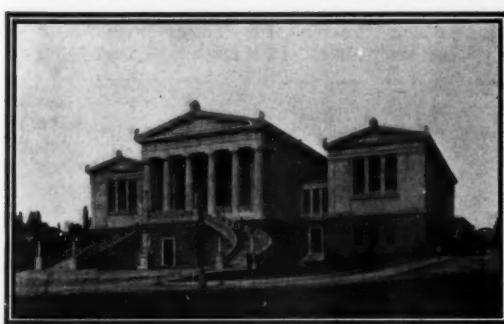
Ægina and Salamis, and saw, beyond Piræus and the band of olive-trees, the Acropolis of Athens, set like a jewel in the brown plain which was bounded on the left by the massive and partly wooded Parnes and on the right by the pink ridge of Hymettus, while that most regular of mountains, Pentelicus, with the form of the gently sloping gable of a Greek temple, closed the background. It is a view which has variety and limits. One might venture to say that it has proportion and rhythm, characteristics of the Parthenon. A quarantine of five days at Salamis gave an opportunity to see the sun diffuse, from dawn till twilight, every manner of hue over this scene; and since then I see, and shall as long as I have being, that picture of Athens and the Athenian plain.

After landing at Piræus, rather than take the train one prefers to approach Athens slowly, perhaps reverently, and to drive over the road which follows closely the ancient one between the long walls which in Pericles's time connected the city with its harbor, a clumsy method of making Athens a maritime city—a conservative measure, one may call it, which prevailed over the radical proposal of Themistocles to abandon Athens altogether after the Persians had destroyed it, and build only at Piræus. A person is fortunate if he can find any stones which he can identify with these walls. But he thinks little of walls when the Acropolis is drawing him on. If the charm is for a moment abated, one notices that one is having a very dusty ride, unless it is winter. As we approach Athens, we cross the Ilissus; but there is no water in it except in winter, and then only on rare occasions. One such occasion occurred in 1897, when on our Thanksgiving Day it rained all day long with fury. In the night the Ilissus rose to a height of twenty-five feet, causing much loss of life and property in Athens, and then conjointly with the Cephissus sweeping through Piræus, destroying the manufacturing part of that city, and making it an island cut off from communication with Athens for forty-eight hours.

Soon we are in Athens, a modern city of nearly one hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants, with good hotels. Its growth is something wonderful for the Old World. In 1830 it

consisted of only about fifty houses, nestling against the north slope of the Acropolis; while at Piræus, now the second city in the kingdom, there were only a few

MODERN ATHENS
— NATIONAL
LIBRARY.



fishermen's huts. But fortunate is the traveler to whom this new creation has little significance; over whose mind the remembrance of Sophocles and Plato, of Pericles and Phidias, sweep, filling it with thoughts of the things that are not seen but eternal. Thus he "by the vision splendid is on his



ATHENS — MONU-
MENT OF
LYSICRATES.

way attended," as he turns to the visible and tangible,— the monuments of ancient Athens.

Not a few, preferring a trace of Paul to the monuments of Pericles, will seek, at least in passing, the bare hill of Areopagus as the spot where Paul stood and spoke, starting from common ground with his Athenian audience, but carrying them up to spiritual heights which Pericles in his oratory never reached. But the creations of Pericles are substantial, and press upon the eye. The whole decoration of the Acropolis is essentially his.

GABLE GROUP FROM THE OLD ATHENA TEMPLE OF THE TIME OF PISISTRATUS.



which encumbered it, in one of these walls all the pieces of the temple with few exceptions were found, and the temple was set up again in its place. The few exceptions included some of the best pieces of the sculptured frieze, which, as they were used as a revetment of the wall, had been seen and gathered in by Lord Elgin. On the restored temple sad-looking terra cotta imitations take the place of these. The building, though now as good as new, is in danger of being totally destroyed by the giving way of the bastion. A not very strong earthquake would doom it to a second death from which there could be no resurrection.

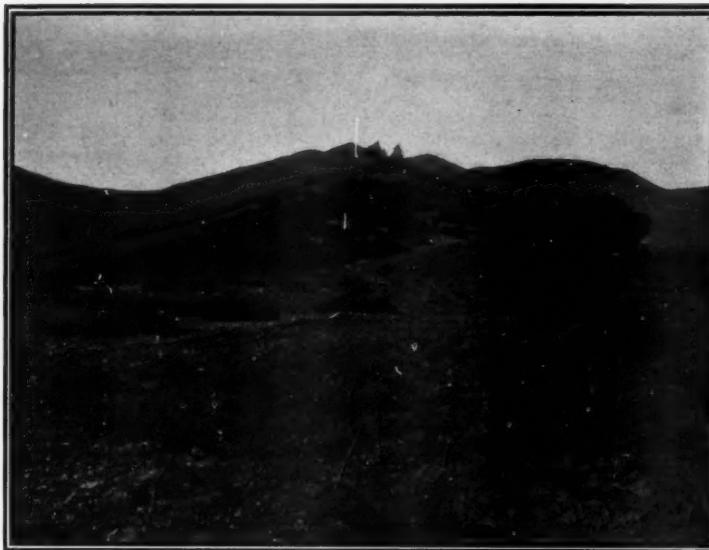
Date of temple to Athena.

GABLE GROUP FROM THE OLD ATHENA TEMPLE BEFORE THE TIME OF PISISTRATUS.

In the second place, this temple has just afforded an instance of the triumph of excavations. When it was first set up its restorer, Ross, assigned it to about 465 B. C., and considered it a sort of trophy of Cimon's victory on the Eurymedon, the finishing blow in the Persian war. This date was accepted by other high authorities in art on the score of the subject and style of the sculptures. But afterward there came a sort of fashion to push its date farther and farther down, until it was talked of as belonging to about the time of the Peloponnesian war. Style in sculpture was treated by experts like a nose of wax, a procedure which did little credit to the guild. It was also claimed by experts in architecture that the joining of the Propylaea and the Nike bastion showed that the latter was built later. Professor Dörpfeld, however, always refused his assent to this weight of authority. And now within two years, in the excavations on the north slope of the Acropolis by



Before entering by the Propylaea, which though curtailed by priests and by the Peloponnesian war excited the admiration and envy of other Greek cities, one casts an admiring gaze upon the little temple of Athena Nike, perched on a high bastion to the right. Interest attaches to this temple for two reasons apart from its exquisite beauty. In the first place, because it rose from the dead. It was seen and described by Spon and Wheler, who visited Athens in 1675; travelers who came a century later, not finding it, doubted their veracity. When, however, King Otto, on coming to the throne, undertook the beautifying of the Acropolis, and made it his first task to clear the Propylaea of the medieval walls



THE MOUND OF MARATHON.

Pan's grotto, there was found an inscription of 450 B. C. which records a vote to build a temple of Athena Nike. The extremists on both sides are shown to be wrong. But one thing is sure, the temple was there before the Propylaea were begun, and was the cause of the curtailment of the latter.

It would be out of place here to attempt a description of the Parthenon. The Parthenon.

What gives it its indisputable claim to be the crown of all architectural achievements is its exquisite proportion and molding. It is true that it could be hidden in one corner of the great temple of Karnak, or be noted as an exquisite chapel; but the most enthusiastic Egyptologist readily concedes that even the admired hypostyle hall of Seti and Rameses is slop-work compared with it. Its sculpture, which once made an additional glory, can no longer count as such, since what escaped destruction in the great explosion of 1687 and the disastrous attempt of Morosini to carry off the west gable group, found its way, luckily or unluckily, into the British Museum by the energy of Lord Elgin, who is blessed or cursed by lovers of art, according to their prejudices. There is, however, one exception, viz.: the band of the frieze which extends across the west end of the cella, the rest of the once continuous band being for the most part safely housed in the British Museum. What remains Elgin could not pull out without tearing down the upper part of the west end of the building. To be sure, he did not stick at prying out metopes when it involved smashing the architecture in which they were imbedded, and actually carried off a column and one of the caryatids from the Erechtheum; but the portion of the frieze under consideration could not be removed with his resources. And now a scaffold erected over all the west end of the Parthenon with a view to repairing certain weaknesses that were made apparent by recent earthquakes, has made it possible, for the first time since this frieze was put in place, to see it on a level with the eye. Through all the centuries of its existence it had to be viewed either at some distance, in which case it was cut up by the intervening columns into little sections, or from a point inside the columns, where one was so nearly under it that an artistic appreciation of it was hardly possible. It seems an absolute waste of so much beauty. This part now on the temple, though a minor part of the whole frieze, which represented the great Panathenaic procession and culminated on the other end with an

Repairing the structure.

ELEUSIS — ROMAN
PROPYLEA ON RIGHT
HAND PAGE. CAVE
OF PLUTO IN THE
CENTER.



assembly of the great gods, is, now that it can be properly seen, in itself an ample vindication of the fame of Phidias, the inspirer of all the sculpture of the Parthenon.

It is to be hoped that the repairs now going on will be effectual. But a building that is deprived of its roof and that has received a terrific strain in all its joints by a mighty explosion, is in a poor condition to resist the very rainy winters and the occasional frosts of Greece. Unless something more radical than what is now being done is attempted, the tooth of time may destroy the Parthenon in fewer years than it has stood practically intact since the explosion. Till then we can still say:

"Earth proudly wears the Parthenon,
As the best gem upon her zone."

The Erechtheum.

The Erechtheum, best known by its caryatid porch, is also worthy of admiration for its complicated structure, combining three temples on different levels into one, and for the fact that it is, of all buildings of Athens, most profusely decorated with bands of carved ornamentation, its great north porch and door being especially praised.

Up to 1886 one had no idea of any older building on the Acropolis than those already mentioned, except that it was clear that the Parthenon was built upon a substructure laid for a building with different proportions. But between 1886 and 1890 the whole Acropolis was cleared down to bed-rock, except under the Parthenon itself. These excavations not only made an indescribably important addition to our stock of sculpture of times before the Persian war, but also revealed, between the Parthenon and the Erechtheum, the foundation walls, with a perfectly clear ground plan, of the one great temple which, up to the destruction by the Persians, dominated the Acropolis. Along with much of the architecture were found two sets of gable groups, one grotesque, belonging to the temple as it was before the time of Pisistratus, and another belonging to the same temple after it had been enlarged and surrounded with a colonnade by Pisistratus, who delighted to honor Athena. It was a large and beautiful temple, painted in gay colors, upon which the Persian fury fell.

The fine monuments which lie in the modern city are scattered about. The one which attracts most attention is the great temple of Olympian

Discoveries on the Acropolis.



Zeus, built on the site of an ancient temple reared by Pyrrha and Deucalion after the flood. Pisistratus started it and Hadrian completed it. It was a much larger temple than the Parthenon, about the size of the temple of Artemis at Ephesus. Only sixteen of the more than a hundred columns now stand.

The so-called Theseum is hardly a ruin, except in so far as it lacks its The Theseum. ancient roof. It owes its preservation to its being early converted into a Christian church. The fact that it is the best preserved of all Greek temples has left little for archaeologists to discuss. The question of the name of the temple, however, has caused, and is still causing, considerable shedding of ink. The one point on which all the contestants agree is that it is not the Theseum. Recently Professor Sauer of Giessen has published a large volume on this temple, in which he attempts the restoration of the lost gable groups from certain cuttings in the cornice, in which the figures were bedded.

The sole survivor of a series of choragic monuments, celebrating victories gained in competitions with choruses, is the monument of Lysicrates, a contemporary of Demosthenes. The frieze represents Dionysus and his attendant satyrs transforming into dolphins a lot of pirates who attacked him. Curiously enough all the numerous illustrations which reproduced this frieze, beginning with Stuart, who probably accidentally transposed two of his sheets, down to 1892, gave some of the figures in a false order. In that year Mr. De Cou, a member of the American School, noticed the error and made the correction. The prevailing error had given the figures a much less symmetrical arrangement.

The visitor will content himself with a view, in passing, of the finer buildings of modern Athens. They are concentrated for the most part around the university and are formed on classic models. But he must visit the National Museum, full of objects which any museum in Europe might like to possess. With a liberality noteworthy in a poor country, the admission is at all times free.

It is sometimes distressing to see innocent strangers in large parties led about Athens by *soi-disant* guides, blind guides who lead straight to the ditch. I have seen such a guide point to a narrow flight of steps beside the Nike

Modern buildings
in Athens.

THEBES — THE
SPRING OF ARES
AND THE DRAGON'S
CAVE IN THE
FOREGROUND.



temple as the work of Pericles, whereas it actually belongs to the time of Pittakis, 1832 A. D. Any intelligent tourist might wonder how Pericles and Phidias had time to spend on such steps. I heard another such guide in the orchestra of the theater of Dionysus, so interesting in structure and so full of associations, saying, "You see that all these seats are of the best Pentelic marble," while his hearers were looking straight into the great cavea of seats of Piræus stone. He then went on to say in a grand voice, "It was said to be one of the grandest of panorama to see the three hundred *nacionale* maidens dancing in this orchestra." Where he got his "three hundred *nacionale* maidens" is a puzzle. Parties must often go away from Athens somewhat in the frame of mind of Herodotus when the Egyptian priests had been guying him.

There are three single-day excursions from Athens which one can hardly afford to forego. The drive of thirteen miles to Eleusis over the Sacred

CORINTH — GLAUCE
PARTLY EXCAVATED.

Way is charming, affording, by the monastery of Daphne where one begins to descend, an especially fine view of the bay of Eleusis, with the brown mountains of Salamis and Megara for a background. At Eleusis, which, after some inadequate attempts by foreigners, has been thoroughly excavated by the Greek

Archæological Society since 1882, very little of the ancient monuments remains upright. But the ground plans of the many buildings are clear and interesting, particularly so the Great Hall of the Mysteries, the center of the sacred





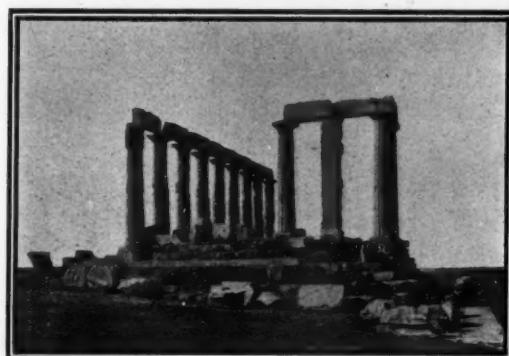
CORINTH — PIRENE.

precinct. The latest shape was given to it in Roman times, but it is possible to trace four older structures on the same ground. Three are ascribed to Pericles, Cimon, and Pisistratus, and the last and oldest it is in the fashion to call Pelasgian, a convenient name to cover ignorance. Perhaps this is the very building which Demeter, according to the Homeric Hymn, ordered the people of Eleusis to make for her sacred mysteries. Eleusis was the religious head of the Athenian state, as Athens was the civil head. About two-thirds of a month each year all Athens gave up to the celebration of the mysteries. Great as is the obscurity which hangs over the doctrine inculcated by the mysteries, it is clear from the best poets, as Sophocles and Pindar, that the initiated were inspired with hopes of a life beyond the grave which made life on earth richer and nobler. Perhaps this doctrine was introduced from Egypt, where from the very earliest times this hope was uttered with no uncertain sound. Excavations show that Eleusis is old enough to have touched Egypt as far back as the eighteenth dynasty.

Monuments at Eleusis.

The excursion to Marathon is more fatiguing, involving a drive of twenty-five miles each way. Up to 1890 it was impossible to say in just what part of the plain the battle took place. The great mound near the seashore, the ordinary lunching place of tourists,

SUNIUM — TEMPLE OF POSEIDON.



had been declared by Dr. Schliemann, on the strength of some inadequate excavations, to be prehistoric. But in 1890 Mr. Stais, a Greek ephor of antiquities, with the happy thought that the whole plain had been raised

CORINTH — STAIR-CASE LEADING INTO THE AGORA.
(Pirene joins on the left, and the newly discovered fountain is on the extreme right.)



The Mound at Marathon.

by alluvial deposit, dug about four feet deeper, and found the bones of the Athenians who fell in the battle, with no end of pottery of the time about them. As the burial would be likely to take place where the heroes fell, the mound is thought to fix the center of the Athenian line when the battle was opened with losses. Further than this we cannot go, because Herodotus, our chief authority on the battle, was more interested in telling yarns than in describing the movements of the armies. Marathon is a place for musing. One conjures back the intrepid Athenians, "who first dared to look on men wearing the Median dress," vainly waiting for news from Sparta and encouraged by the arrival of the little band from Plataea. Next comes the attack at a run across a wide interval; then the last scene of the panorama,

*"The flying Mede, his broken, shaftless bow,
The fiery Greek, his red
pursuing spear."*

One feels history here. Marathon was not a decisive battle. The Persians, when they had suppressed the revolt in Egypt, came again, overran the whole country, and destroyed Athens. But it is safe to say that had there been no Marathon there would have been no Salamis, and no Platea.

The excursion to Sunium is made by rail as far as Laurium, where were the great silver mines of the Athenians, and thence by carriage. One has time between the trains to drive out and back. The temple stands

CORINTH — THE NEWLY DISCOVERED FOUNTAIN IN THE AGORA.



on the southeastern headland of Attica, and affords a fine view out among the islands of the Ægean as far as Melos. Conversely, it was a landmark of sailors, seen afar off. One always felt a little incongruity in this temple belonging to Athena. Let Athena be supreme on her own rock, but this surely is the place for Poseidon, the sailors' god. And lo! Mr. Stais, in excavating this temple and its surroundings thoroughly, a little over a year ago, found an inscription which proves beyond a doubt that this is a temple of Poseidon after all, and has been misnamed for centuries, largely on the strength of a passage in Pausanias which seemed to call it the temple of Athena. Archaeology is making wonderful strides in these days, and its stepping-stones are inscriptions.

In looking northward from Eleusis one sees a low chain of mountains, rising to heights of four thousand six hundred feet at its eastern and western ends, in Parnes and Cithæron. The longing to see what is beyond grows until one compasses one's desire. Beyond is Boeotia, and it is but a day's drive from Athens to Thebes. Greece is not a land of magnificent distances. "Infinite riches in a little room" describes it. On this journey, just before crossing the top of the ridge, one passes Eleutheræ, the frontier fortress of Attica, with walls and towers almost perfect on one of its long sides, the finest fortress in Attica. From the top of the pass appear Parnassus on the left and the mountains of Eubœa on the right. As you go down into Boeotia, Platæa lies about four miles to the left of the road, well up on the north flank of Cithæron. Thebes itself is hidden from view by low hills.

The best way, however, to see Boeotia is by bicycle. In that way one gets over the pass in time to accomplish, with considerable pains, it is true, the detour to Platæa, and to get on to Thebes the same day. One winter day I started from Eleusis at eight o'clock. At noon I was in Thebes. The view from the top of the pass had detained me awhile, for it included not only Parnassus and Disphys, both snow-clad down to the base, each one more beautiful than the other, as the Germans would say, but also far-distant Olympus, clear-cut against the northern sky. The day was absolutely perfect. I have stood on the same spot perhaps ten times, and never before, nor since, have I had the view of Olympus.

But there was no mistake about it. The weather was so fine that I did not turn back from Thebes as I had intended, but kept on to Lebadea, and the next day to Lamia. The third day, clearer still, if possible, I climbed the Furka Pass on the road toward Pharsala, and again saw Olympus with the same clear-cut profile, only sixty miles nearer. Then I turned around and rode to Amphissa the same day, subsequently visiting Delphi to see the excavations of the French School. This circling Parnassus and getting it from every point of view was very fine. From Lamia, on the Ulalic gulf, to Amphissa, close to the Corinthian gulf, is not much more than half a day with a wheel — although it involves a long

Discovery at Sunium.



PHRYGIAN CAPTIVE
FROM THE PRO-
PYLÆA AT CORINTH.

Through Boeotia on a bicycle.

climb,— and the view in either direction is full of charm. How one likes to go in Greece from sea to sea!

A trip on foot.

But, after all, the good old fashion of walking brings a peculiar exhilaration in Greece; and more than once have I tramped over Boeotia with members of our school. In fact, Boeotia is a region that I find it hard to keep away from. The last time we tramped there was two years ago, when five of us spent nine days on the trip, and touched all the points of interest, taking a carriage two days, a steamer a whole day, and a train part of a day, and paying out for the whole journey fifty-five drachmas (\$6.60) apiece.

Most fellow-countrymen of ours who will see the same things take a dragoman and pay from seventy to ninety dollars for it. How can so great a difference be explained? By the simple fact that these Americans, not knowing the language, have to take a dragoman to take care of them; and the dragoman is always an expensive luxury. We, of course, have to rough it somewhat; and I recall the solemn alliteration that one of our men used to utter in Boeotia in 1890, "I tell you, fellows, in this business what a man saves in his

CORINTH—THEATER,
WITH ACRO-CORINTH
IN THE BACK-
GROUND.



Expense of the
journey.

pocket he takes out of his pelt." But in the parts of Greece where one most needs a dragoman the comfort thereby secured is not commensurate with the added expense. You cannot get luxury by it. Even the dragoman's resources have limits, and he rarely takes parties, for example, into the wild and lonely northern Arcadia, where with a little willingness to rough it one may have a very good time. I once made there, with two good companions, a tour of seven days in the saddle, starting out from Argos, taking a look at the Corinthian gulf at Megaspelion, swinging around back to Argos again, climbing several mountains, and visiting the Fall of the Styx and Lake Stymphalus by the way, at an expense of somewhat less than ten drachmas (about \$1.20) a day, of which six went to pay for the horses. It must be conceded that there was a sameness about our fare, which was always chicken, bread, and grapes for luncheon and dinner, and little or nothing for breakfast; and yet, since the chickens were always good and the grapes exquisite, we felt well fed. Sleeping was cheap, for we slept on floors, except one night, when we got beds—worse luck to them!

On the Boeotian tramp we slept four nights on the floor, because there was nothing else to do, and the other four nights in fairly good beds at

hotels, in Thebes, Lebadea, and Chalkis. We took an unusual route, making use of the train from Athens to Megara. We afterward tramped in a northwesterly direction until we reached the northern arm of the Corinthian gulf, which here stretches far in toward the east. Then following the shore as closely as we could, at night we reached *Ægosthena*, the frontier town of Megara toward Boeotia. We arrived late because we had yielded to the temptation to pitch off boulders into the sea from the high crags which we had to climb in order to get on. As a compensation we got our first view of the ruins of *Ægosthena* by the light of the full moon, which cast an added glory over them. If there are more impressive ruins in Greece than these I do not know them. But nobody ever goes to see them. Most people would prefer to take a reading journey there rather than go as we did. For on this occasion we had no meat of any kind after our hard day's work, but only bread and cheese and black coffee, the regular peasants' fare, and slept in a room paved with cobblestones, glad to have any shelter at all. Our host said that if we had sent him word beforehand he would have had a turkey for us, and I do not doubt him, for in the outlying parts of Greece hospitality knows no bounds but absolute inability. The next morning, after a good winter sea-bath, and a second view of the ruins, we strengthened ourselves with more bread and cheese; and with the aid of a donkey to carry our packs, climbed over Cithæron. From the top we saw all Boeotia stretched out before us, so that we could practically read our week's program. Only the beautiful valley of the Muses lay hidden among the spurs of Helicon, to the left. At our feet lay Platæa.

I have approached Platæa from the north, from the south, from the east, and from the west; and never without an impulse to take off my hat and bow to the ground before the single city in Greece—unfortunately small—which was always found in the path of duty and of honor, even when it was at a frightful cost. This consideration it is which makes its remaining walls venerable and almost sacred. How fitting it was that the great battle which kept Greece, and so also Europe, from being Asianized should have been fought under its walls! Platæa thus became the birthplace of Hellenic aspirations. For centuries, to be sure, the Greeks had felt a sort of brotherhood when they met at Olympia to run and leap and wrestle with one another, with the rest of the world shut out; but now for the first time came a vision of what united Greece might accomplish against a great foreign enemy. Alas! that after "Old Platæa's day" it so soon became and remained only a vision.

I have usually approached Thebes as the sun was setting, and sometimes in the evening twilight. It is a fitting time, for what attracts us to Thebes lies in the twilight. (Œdipus and his fratricidal sons, Antigone, sweet and noble, a flower swept away by the blast, these are the persons who occupy our thoughts in Thebes. "Sie sind ewig weil sie sind" (They are eternal because they are), more real than even Epaminondas and Pindar, though the former, taking into account his character and his powers, was the greatest of all the Greek men of affairs, combining the excellences of Aristides and Themistocles; while the latter's flights of lyric song are the wonder of the world.

Chæronea, forty miles north of Thebes, was the tomb of that Pan-Hellenic spirit which had its birth at Platæa. Here Thebes, won by the fiery zeal of Demosthenes, stood shoulder to shoulder with her traditional enemy, Athens, against the Macedonians, as if to make us forget that she was on the side of the Persians at Platæa. The stone lion erected over the fallen Thebans is the principal monument of Chæronea. This broken lion awaits restoration, and the small rock-cut theater hard by, where Plutarch must often have sat, awaits excavation of its lower parts. A little to the east of Chæronea lies Orchomenus, once the rival of Thebes, and in Mycæan times the principal power in Boeotia. It

Ruins of *Ægosthena*.

Platæa.

Thebes.

Last battle against Persia.

boasts a bee-hive tomb, excavated by Dr. Schliemann, constructed of marble, and so, of course, admired by Pausanias, under the name of the Treasury of Minyas, more than the so-called "Treasury of Athens" at Mycenæ. He declares that it is "surpassed by no monument in Greece or elsewhere." The imposing citadel of classical times is worth climbing, not only for the study of the walls but also for the view which it gives of the mountains which enclose Boeotia. When I first climbed it in 1890 it looked out upon Lake Copais, which has since been drained, giving back one of the most fertile tracts in Greece. Its existence in modern times was due to carelessness that allowed the ancient drainage canals which ran under the mountains to be stopped up. The ancient Minya, who held the Orchomenus of Homer, had a perfect drainage system, and the plain, thus kept fertile, gave the city its significance.

Boeotia, with all its rich soil and its sturdy men, never played, except during the brief period when Epaminondas was at the helm, the important part to which its resources seemed to invite it. This is because there was no concentration under one leadership except then. Athens and Sparta early molded the surrounding places into the states Attica and Laconia. But Thebes, in Boeotia, remained *primus inter pares*, and its attempts to consolidate Boeotia into a state only aroused hatred. Thus it came about that Boeotian armies did not cross their borders to the woe of other states of Greece, but others came to Boeotia to fight, and so it came to have that most expressive epithet, "the orchestra of Ares." It was perhaps a land of high living and plain thinking, where Copais eels ranked higher than ideas; but the wits who were so proud of having been nurtured in the dry air of Attica, and the Spartans themselves, more than once found the Boeotians more than a match for them in battle.

To the north of Boeotia lies Thessaly, with two of the most picturesque objects in Greece, the Vale of Tempe, and the Meteora cloisters. As Thessaly has a good network of railroads, the traveler can hardly afford to let these go. Off to the west lies a region, picturesque and full of ruins, but as neglected now as it was in antiquity, Ætolia and Acarnania. Travelers who miss this northwestern corner of Greece, easily accessible by rail and ferry from Patras, lose more than they suppose. But aside from Mesolonghi and Agrinum there are no decent lodging places there.

There is one place which American visitors will now never pass by without a careful examination, because the American School of Classical Studies at Athens has, by its excavations there since 1896, made it in a sense American territory; famous, populous, wealthy Corinth, with its melancholy history. Long before Athens became a power in Greece, Corinth had founded three of the greatest colonies ever founded by any Greek city, Syracuse, Corcyra, and Ambracia. Later, when it was getting crowded out of the markets of the world by Athens, it pushed sluggish Sparta into the Peloponnesian war, which accomplished the ruin of Athens, but did not much help Corinth. At the end of the long years of war between the Greek cities, Corinth found herself at last at the head of the Achæan League, playing for the first time a leading rôle in Greek affairs. In an evil day it threw down the gauntlet to Rome. Mummius made an example of it and leveled it to the ground, filling Rome with booty. A century later Julius Cæsar refounded it, under the official name of *Colonia Laus Julia*, but its current name was still Corinth. This city at once became the first in Greece. It was honored by the presence of the great Apostle to the Gentiles, who lived here for a year and a half, and formed a church, to which he was devotedly attached. He pours out more of his personality and more of his great heart in the two letters to them than in all his other letters. It was not without emotion that I read upon a finely molded marble block which once formed the lintel of a door, and was dug up in our excavations at a depth of about ten feet below the surface of the soil, the words, "Synagogue of the

Lake Copais.

Thessaly and the
Vale of Tempe.

Corinth and its
history.

Hebrews." Under this very lintel St. Paul probably passed and repassed when, before turning to the Greeks, he was still "persuading the Jews."

When we began work at Corinth in 1896 the only landmark of the ancient city was the well-known ruin of an archaic temple on a slight elevation overlooking the wretched village known as Old Corinth. Pausanias had left a very clear though brief description of the city as it stood about 170 A. D. On the basis of this description there had been much discussion of the topography of Corinth, and many plans had been published. In all of them, unfortunately, the wrong name had been given to the old temple, and they are worthless.

Our first object was to establish some fixed point in the description of Pausanias, preferably the agora, *i.e.*, the great public square, because he states that most of the important monuments of the city were in or near the agora. It was a rather bold undertaking, considering that Corinth covered an area greater than any other Greek city. But we were successful. In the eighteenth of twenty-one trial trenches that we dug, in a promising curve at the lower edge of the upper of the two terraces on which the city lay, we found the theater. It lay under about fifteen feet of earth; and we contented ourselves with digging six branches of trench No. 18, to secure a good plan of it.

With the simple *discovery* of the theater the topography of Corinth at least drew near to a solution, inasmuch as we now knew within certain limits where to look for the agora, because Pausanias puts it much to the east of the theater. Meanwhile, much farther east, in trench No. 3, running across the valley just east of the temple ruin, we had found encouragement to believe that we were at that point in or near the agora, in the discovery of a broad pavement with building walls on each side of it. It was a hopeful beginning.

After the Greek war with Turkey in 1897 we took up the work again in 1898. Proceeding up the valley at right angles to trench No. 3, we followed the broad pavement until it came to the foot of a broad marble staircase. But in the meantime we had got access through a well, about a hundred yards away, to a series of six chambers with a covering of natural rock, and with a stream of water flowing along back of them. The earth covered their front, and had pressed into the chambers themselves, half filling them; but we at once recognized that we had to do with Pirene, the famous fountain of Corinth, because Pausanias described Pirene as a series of cave-like chambers, through which the water flowed into an open basin. We now regarded everything else as secondary, and made a deep cutting for our track, straight for Pirene. The process of getting the Greek government to buy for us the extra strip of land needed was too slow, and we bought the land at the owner's price. Before the close of the campaign we had the greater part of the façade cleared. As the earth lay thirty feet deep, it was no quick and easy task. But the reward was commensurate with the labor. Experts pronounced it the finest example extant of a Greek fountain house. The two-story structure is, to be sure, Roman, and hides a much simpler structure of Greek times, consisting only of the low chambers with modestly ornamented fronts and backs. The two-story front is, however, that which Pausanias saw and described. When he saw it, it had a revetment of marble, traces of which are seen in the holes cut in the limestone blocks of the façade, and in cartloads of marble chips, on one of which appeared the word "Pirene." In Byzantine times there was thrown out in front of this façade a colonnade, two columns of which still remain *in situ*.

To have excavated Pirene, both on account of its impressiveness and on account of its great fame (Corinth is constantly alluded to in the poets as "the city of Pirene"), was success enough for one campaign. But to us Pirene had an even greater value as completely settling the

Progress of the work.

Discovering the fountain house.

A READING JOURNEY IN THE ORIENT.

topography of Corinth. From the description of Pausanias it was clear that the agora was close at hand. How very near we did not then know. Pausanias mentions a street leading northward from the agora toward Lechæum, the harbor of Corinth on the Corinthian gulf, as passing Pirene immediately after leaving the agora. It was easy to put one and one together. We had Pirene, and we had a broad paved street passing it, extending clear through the city (as we had proved by tapping it at three different places) in the direction of Lechæum. We had, then, but to follow this street backwards to pass into the agora; and when we once found ourselves there we could locate within narrow limits every monument mentioned by Pausanias, who follows various streets radiating from the agora. Thus the work of the following year was blocked out for us.

Roman triumphal arch.

The next year, 1899, with the comfortable feeling that the tentative stage was passed, we followed our leading-string, and proceeded up the marble staircase; and lo! an advance of some fifteen feet brought us to the broken buttresses of the Propylæa, a sort of Roman triumphal arch, through which, as Pausanias said, this street passed out of the agora. When we had cleared a considerable area in this we found that it even touched Pirene, although it was at a level so much higher than it that one had to go some distance down the staircase to reach the entrance to it.

Without uncovering all the agora we could immediately gather in our topographical results. We could line up the monuments on the street leading westward from the agora all the more readily because we already had the theater, pretty well out on this street. One of the most interesting results of this lining up was that the venerable old temple ruin was seen to stand just to the right of a straight line drawn from the agora to the theater, and very near to the agora end; and consequently it had to "own up" that it was the temple of Apollo, "the first monument on your right as you go out of the agora on the street leading toward Sicyon." This was the name which I had provisionally given it on the bright and glorious summer evening three years before, when we had struck deep down in trench No. 18 a few steps, which unmistakably formed the staircase of a theater.

Temple of Apollo.

Between the temple of Apollo and the theater, Pausanias mentions a group of monuments consisting of the odeon, the tomb of Medea's children, and the fountain Glauce. To make our topographical chain stronger we wished to find one of these. Nearly in the prescribed line lay a cube of rock which looked like the leavings of the quarrying for the material of the Apollo temple. There were two chambers cut in it, now nearly filled up with earth. As we commenced clearing these out, we suspected that we had to do either with the tomb or the fountain, we could not tell which. Soon we became convinced that it was the fountain; we could not for a long time furnish the absolute proof, but at last at the very outermost and back corner of a third ruined chamber we found the rock-cut channel through which water was delivered into the chambers from the direction of Acro-Corinth, the source of all the water of the region. We now had a line of three monuments in that direction. The Apollo temple which we now thoroughly excavated was by the discovery of Glauce held still more firmly as such. To the north also, a great brick ruin in the middle of the village was identified as the Baths of Eurycles. This we partially excavated.

Remains of Roman sculpture.

In 1900, instead of pushing out farther in any direction, we worked in the agora itself, where to the west of the Propylæa we found a great quantity of sculpture of the Roman period, most of it belonging to colossal bearing figures analogous to the caryatids. One figure, apparently a Phrygian captive, was entire, others nearly so. It seems probable that these colossal figures belong to the decoration of the Propylæa.

The other chief result of the season's work was the discovery of a fountain enclosed by a series of metopes and triglyphs, taken apparently

from temples destroyed by Mummius. The painted patterns upon these are so fresh that they furnish, perhaps, the best example which exists of Greek painted architecture. The fountain itself is enclosed in a trapezoidal room the stone pavement of which is some seven feet below the bottom of the triglyphs. Through the west wall the water was delivered through two bronze lion's head spouts, found intact. On the pavement are the round holes for the pitchers. This is the only case of an ancient Greek fountain preserved entire and unchanged. It is also the only monument, so far discovered, that survived intact the cruel destruction of Mummius.

An ancient Greek fountain.

This fountain lies at the foot of the hill on which stands the temple of Apollo; and this year we shall move in that direction. M. Kabbadias, the Greek ephor-general of antiquities, has said, "God only knows what new surprises await us when the Americans move up that hill." On account of pressure of other duties we work only from two to three months each year in the spring. Perhaps we may have great things to announce, and perhaps we may meet disappointment. It is like fishing. But our work has received tangible testimony to its success in the erection of a substantial museum at Old Corinth, and in the careful protecting of the old fountain with an iron grating. We are justifying the motto carved over the fireplace of our school library,

"VIRUM MONUMENTA PRIORUM."



1. What are the advantages of the two ways of approaching Athens? 2. What two historic streams still belong to the city? 3. What part of it is associated with St. Paul? 4. What interesting recent history belongs to the little temple of Athena Nike? 5. What part of the famous Parthenon frieze still remains in place? 6. What discoveries upon the Acropolis were made between 1886 and 1890? 7. What especially famous monuments still remain in the city itself? 8. What traces of ancient Eleusis are still to be found? 9. What interesting discovery was made at Marathon? 10. What at Sunium? 11. What splendid scenery rewards the traveler to Boetia? 12. What associations have Platea, Thebes and Chæronea? 13. For what is Orchomenus famous? 14. Why do the excavations at Corinth promise especially interesting results? 15. What discoveries were made up to the time of the recent Greek war? 16. Describe the finding of Pirene. 17. Describe the other discoveries.



1. What was the Areopagus? 2. When was the eighteenth Egyptian dynasty? 3. What historic struggle took place at Amphissa? 4. What was the mythological origin of the fountain of Pirene? 5. What was the story of Medea's children?



The literature for a study of Greece is very large. One may make a selection of the following important books: Baedeker's *Greece*. English edition, 1894. This has great value in the topography, history, and art of Greece. *The Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens*. Harrison and Verrall. (Macmillan & Company, 1890.) *Athens and the Demes of Athens*. W. M. Leake. Two vols. Nearly three-quarters of a century old but still valuable. *Travels in Northern Greece*. Vol. II, for Boetia. *Rambles and Studies in Greece*. J. P. Mahaffy. (Macmillan & Company, 1878.) Popular and racy. The old and well-known histories of Grote and Curtius have in some points been rendered antiquated by modern discovery and research. But the following work has kept pace with these advances: *History of Greece*. Four vols. (Macmillan & Company.) For information about excavations one must go to the organs of the different national archaeological schools in Athens published during the last twenty years. Those published in English are: *Journal of Hellenic Studies*. *American Journal of Archaeology*. Some attempts have been made to gather up the results of these excavations in Percy Gardner's *New Chapters in Greek History*. (Putnam's.) *Excursions in Greece*. C. Diehl. (Westermann & Company, New York, 1893.) *The Gods in Greece*. Louis Dyer. (Macmillan, 1891.)

Review Questions.

Search Questions.

Bibliography.

CRITICAL STUDIES IN FRENCH LITERATURE.*

VIII. BALZAC'S "EUGÉNIE GRANDET."

BY WILLIAM P. TRENT, M. A., LL. D.

(Professor of English Literature, Barnard College and Columbia University.)



Representative character of "Eugénie Grandet."

Its place in the "Comedy."

Its setting.

N the nearly fifty-one years that have elapsed since Balzac's death — a space of time almost equal to his comparatively short life — his fame has perhaps grown more steadily and extensively than that of any other modern writer. He is now quite generally acknowledged to be the greatest of French novelists, and many of his admirers contend that his name, preëminent in the annals of fiction, is securely enrolled among the small number of the world's supreme writers. We need not discuss this claim here, but we may act on the assumption that a representative novel of an author for whom such a claim has been made by competent critics is well worthy of our careful study.

It is not difficult to select such a representative novel for our purpose, in spite of the fact that Balzac's unfinished "Human Comedy," which was intended to cover every phase of life, is a work of great magnitude. It is quite difficult, if not impossible, to determine what is his greatest novel — whether "La Cousine Bette," or "Splendeurs et Misères des Courtisanes," or "Père Goriot," or "Eugénie Grandet," or "La Peau de Chagrin," or, perhaps, one or two others. It is equally impossible to determine whether any one of his greatest books is greater than the greatest novel — whatever that may be — of such a novelist, say, as Thackeray. But it is quite plain that, however much more Balzac was — and he was much more — he is generally looked upon as the founder of that school of novelists known as realists, and that as a realist he never wrote anything more memorable than "Eugénie Grandet." This story is also the best known of his works except "Père Goriot," and it has the advantage of containing little or nothing that contravenes Anglo-Saxon ideas of propriety. It is, therefore, admirably adapted for study by readers who approach for the first time its great author.

"Eugénie Grandet" was published in 1834. It was one of the first stories in a series entitled "Scenes of Provincial Life," which forms an important portion of the great "Comedy." As I have said elsewhere, Balzac gave the world in this series an essentially new form of fiction by unfolding "with matchless realism the interesting dramas enacted in provincial towns and districts where the passions and foibles of men and women can develop practically unchecked."

The scene of the novel is laid in the town of Saumur, and, as is usual with him, Balzac begins with an elaborate description of the place, especially of its houses and shops. His great success in setting such exteriors before our eyes is generally conceded, but it is often urged with justice that by such descriptions he frequently, in an unfortunate manner, delays the action of his stories. This charge scarcely lies against "Eugénie Grandet," for the somber setting is admirably suited to the picture of narrow provincial life soon to be given us. Before we can grow tired of Saumur, we are brought to the house of M. Grandet, an ex-cooper and former mayor, now the richest man in the region and

* No. 1, "The Song of Roland," appeared in the October CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 2, "Montaigne and Essay Writing in France," in the November CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 3, "Tartuffe: a Typical Comedy of Molière," in the December CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 4, "Lyrists and Lyrics of Old France," in the January CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 5, "Hugo's Ninety-Three," in the February CHAUTAUQUAN; No. 6, "The Short Story in France," in March; No. 7, "Alexandre Dumas and the Three Musketeers," in April.

destined to become, before we finish the volume, our ideal of all that a father should not be, and of all in the way of evil that an unscrupulous miser-capitalist may represent.

The sight of Grandet's house suggests a sketch of his history, which Balzac proceeds to give with the exactitude of a biographer. We seem to be reading of a real man, and we get that sense of the veritable which Balzac, seemingly more than any other novelist, imparts to his typical work. The sources of Grandet's fortune are revealed to us, we are told what sort of a man he is, we are prepared to pity his submissive wife and innocent daughter, and are given to understand that intrigues for the hand of this unfortunate heiress will form the ground-work of the plot of the story. Then follows an elaborate description of the old house which we shall not often leave — nor will it leave us — and of Grandet's devoted maid-servant, Big Nanon, who plays a very important part in the book and is one of the best lower-class characters Balzac or any other novelist has given to the world. The faithfulness of this old woman is almost enough of itself to prove that her creator had a noble heart and was not the thoroughgoing pessimist he is often assumed to have been.

Thus far we have had description only — about twenty-five pages of it — but what description! At last something happens. One evening, about the middle of November, in the year 1819, Nanon lights the fire for the first time. Any event that involves consumption is of great importance in the Grandet household. But this is a day of special importance to our heroine Eugénie. It is not only her birthday on which her father regularly presents her with a rare gold coin, the preservation of which he duly looks out for — it is also a day for the gathering of the rival hosts of the Cruchotins and the Grassinistes, who are equally interested in the preservation of all that she and her father have. Each party has a suitor whom we need not describe here, for this paper is written with the purpose of sending readers to Balzac, not of giving the erroneous impression that any of his books can be thoroughly synopsized.

Let us suppose now that the rival clans have gathered and that with the subdued Mme. Grandet and the fluttered Eugénie they have sat down to a game of cards, the old cooper grimly watching them and reading their innermost selfish thoughts. Suddenly an unexpected knock is heard and after much commotion — for visitors, much less guests, are rare in the Grandet establishment — a new personage is introduced, Charles Grandet, the miser's nephew, only son of his brother, a reputedly wealthy merchant of Paris. Charles is a spoiled Parisian dandy, and his introduction into the dingy drawing-room filled with equally dingy provincials affords our novelist an opportunity for some very effective description. The provincials scent in him a prospective suitor, but the miser, who busies himself with a letter brought by Charles from his father, has quite other thoughts. The letter announces that the Parisian Grandet is a bankrupt who is about to commit suicide and who commends his son to his brother's protection.

How ironical such protection is, soon appears to us. Eugénie, who has never before seen such a model of youthful elegance as her cousin and who unconsciously falls in love with him at first sight, has to take money out of her own pocket in order to replace the tallow candle in his bedroom with a wax one. The next day she braves the miser's displeasure by furnishing Charles with an extra amount of sugar and other trifles; and from an unsophisticated girl she becomes a reflecting woman who begins to judge her father. The plot thickens, but we must forbear to describe minutely one of the most powerful and pathetic dramas ever enacted within the four walls of a house. Let it suffice us to know that although Grandet speedily packs Charles off to the Indies to make his fortune, he cannot prevent the two young people from plighting their troth, nor can he regain his own ascendancy over his daughter who hands over to Charles

Outline of the story.

Eugénie in love with her cousin.

the gold she has hoarded under her father's supervision. The discovery of this unparalleled act of disobedience and of sacrilege—for money is his only god and he regards money given to a creature of fashion like Charles as simply squandered—almost maddens the old miser, although he has himself formed a scheme for keeping his brother's affairs out of the court of bankruptcy. That scheme, however, was to redound to his own credit and was to cost him nothing.

He punishes Eugénie by confining her to her chamber, but he cannot break her spirit, although he does succeed by his cruelty and indifference in killing his wife, who has defended her daughter as well as she could. Then he reconciles himself with Eugénie—the heiress of her mother—whom he persuades to sign away her inheritance to him. His gold grows dearer and dearer to him as old age creeps on him, and when he is paralyzed he has himself wheeled across his room to a place near the fire from which he can see the door behind which his treasures are concealed. He teaches Eugénie how to manage the estates that must soon be hers, but he has no conception of how she is suffering from the absence and silence of her lover. The house is deserted save by the Cruchotins who foresee victory, and but for the faithfulness of Nanon and Eugénie, and the pathos of the situation, one would hardly be willing to finish the book.

Death of the miser.

At last death comes to the miser in a scene described with a concision and a vividness remarkable even for Balzac. "When the curé came to administer the sacrament, all the life seemed to have died out of the miser's eyes, but they lit up for the first time for many hours at the sight of the silver crucifix, the candlesticks, and holy water vessel, all of silver; he fixed his gaze on the precious metal, and the lips were twitched for the last time."

Eugénie is left with only one real friend—Nanon, who is happier than her mistress, since her master's death has permitted her to marry a worthy man who has served for her longer than Jacob. Her millions are nothing to a woman who is all heart, and the heiress, who is still the center of intrigues, lives on her love and her hopes long deferred. But even her hopes finally fail her, for a cruel letter from Charles announces his return with a fortune, and his approaching marriage with the daughter of a noble house. Eugénie bears the blow in a way worthy of any heroine of fiction or of life. She herself pays the remaining creditors of Charles's father and thus smoothes his way for his alliance with the aristocracy. Then she does what an English or an American woman would hardly have done—she contracts a nominal marriage with the President de Bonfons, the candidate of the Cruchotins. This step should not, however, be counted against her and Balzac, as it has been by some critics, for marriage is not to the French what it is to us, and Eugénie's wealth entailed more responsibilities than a lone woman could at that time well bear. But marriage does not relieve her even of responsibilities, for her husband soon dies and she is left with her sorrow and her wealth and her saving piety. There have been greater heroines than Eugénie Grandet—women who have done nobler things, but it would be hard to find in literature a heroine that suffers more. To some of us hers is as pathetic a figure as was ever conceived by the creative imagination.

Special features of the story.

It is almost needless after this long description of the story to lay stress upon its special features. It is sufficient to say that in "*Eugénie Grandet*" Balzac showed himself, as he rarely did, to be practically a faultless artist and very little less than a great poet. There are no better descriptions, no more vivid scenes to be found elsewhere in the "Comedy." No reader is likely to forget Grandet's advice to Charles when the latter was looking around for more sugar: "Put in some more milk if your coffee is too strong." Nor will the departure of Charles, or the rage of Grandet with Eugénie, or the last sufferings of Mme. Grandet, or the miser's death, or Eugénie's breaking open Charles's letter soon

fade from one's memory. As for the characters, they illustrate perfectly what M. Brunetière finds to be Balzac's distinguishing trait—"his gift to make living." They live as only the characters of the greatest writers do. It is true, as has been urged, that Balzac never created a character summing up national traits—for example, a *Don Quixote*. But his power of characterization was more varied probably than that of any other writer, and it was as inevitable. Still this is one of those critical controversies that can never be settled, and it will be best to leave it to one side as well as to forbear replying to small objections that have been raised against this or that point in a book which for two generations has been held a masterpiece by countless readers in every civilized country.

As we have already said, "*Eugénie Grandet*" belongs to Balzac's "*Scenes of Provincial Life*," but while the narrowness of life in Saumur is well set before us, it is clear that the dominant notes of the story are the suffering of Eugénie and her mother, and the egotism of Grandet. Thus the book might logically have been placed in another series, the "*Scenes of Private Life*." The novel that probably stands nearest to it in the "*Comedy*" in point of subject-matter is, however, one included in what Balzac called his "*Philosophical Studies*." This is "*La Recherche de l'Absolu*" ("*The Quest of the Absolute*"), in which the hero is a Flemish gentleman who sacrifices his fortune and his wife and children to the pursuit of his philosophic mania. Balthazar Clæs is a much nobler man than Grandet, but the old miser is the more strikingly drawn character, while Eugénie is more pathetic than Margaret, the admirable Flemish maiden. Still, readers of "*Eugénie Grandet*" will do well to read the other story, which is more of a romance. Readers interested in the character of Grandet may also like to learn what Balzac could do with a somewhat different but perhaps even more powerful type of money-lover; if so they may be recommended to read the novelette entitled "*Gobseck*." They will also find a provincial miser well sketched in "*Un Ménage de Garçon*" ("*A Bachelor's Establishment*"). If on the other hand they are more interested in Balzac's handling of pathetic situations, they may follow up "*Eugénie Grandet*" with the Dickens-like story "*Pierrette*," which recounts the sufferings of a poor orphan, or they may read the record of the trials of a persecuted parish priest given in "*Le Curé de Tours*"—a masterpiece of the first order. Finally, and without attempting to exhaust the list of fine novels that await those whom a reading of "*Eugénie Grandet*" may inspire with a desire to know more of Balzac's work, persons who are interested in the novelist's management of provincial intrigues, to which he lends as great an interest as though his stage were an empire instead of a small town, may be recommended to read "*La Vieile Fille*" ("*The Old Maid*"), in which another rich heiress is striven for, and "*Ursule Mirouët*," in which there is a struggle for an inheritance. All the novels mentioned in this paragraph, save "*Un Ménage de Garçon*," are comparatively unamenable to the charge so often brought against French fiction, of not being morally clean.

It would be useless, in conclusion, to attempt to cite the opinions passed by leading critics upon the great novel we are discussing. Some have preferred it even to "*Père Goriot*," a story which is perhaps more poignantly pathetic but is also more romantic. Others have confessed that they did not greatly care for it. Balzac himself thought highly of it, but, as often happens, he cooled toward it when the public began to say that this or that new book was not so good as "*Eugénie Grandet*." He actually wrote of it later as the story with which the public had assassinated so many good things of his. But while such comparisons are often exasperating, it is quite clear that the public was in the main right in its preference for "*Eugénie Grandet*," and doubtless Balzac knew it in his heart. It has nearly every element of a great work of fiction. Admirable description, vivid narration, strength of characterization,

Collateral stories.

Opinions of
"Eugénie Grandet."

intense human interest — these are undeniable merits possessed by it. Its poignant pathos, which is undiminished by the admixture of anything sensational or even romantic, is another and perhaps its crowning merit. Like a great poetic tragedy it purges the emotions. It is hard to see how any one can read it without resolving to be more on his guard against the love of money and the love of self. It is, of course, a very sad book, and some people do not like sad books. Such persons should not read "Eugénie Grandet," but on the same principle they ought not to read "Othello" — which by the way a very scholarly and sensitive friend of mine will not read in his class-room — or many another masterpiece of literature. For my own part I can only say that I have read "Eugénie Grandet" over and over until I know it better than I do any other novel, and that each time I read it I marvel the more at its wonderful power.



Bibliography.

For further study of Balzac, readers may be referred to "A Memoir of H. de Balzac" by Katharine Prescott Wormeley; to Frederic Wedmore's "Life of Honoré de Balzac" in the "Great Writers" series; and to Dr. B. W. Wells's "A Century of French Fiction." Single essays by George Moore, H. T. Peck, Henry James, and Leslie Stephen may also be consulted. In French the Vicomte de Spoelberch de Lovendoul has done noteworthy bibliographical and biographical work upon Balzac, but perhaps the best source of information for the general reader is Taine's very remarkable essay in his "Nouveaux Essais de Critique et d'Histoire" — which has set the tone of most modern criticism. Brunetière's treatment of Balzac in his recent history of French literature is also of distinct importance. For further views of the present writer readers may consult the article on Balzac in Warner's "Library of the World's Best Literature" and the introductions in the edition of Balzac's works recently published by T. Y. Crowell & Co.



Review Questions.

1. Of what series of stories by Balzac does "Eugénie Grandet" form a part?
2. Give the setting of the story, the character of the town and of the ex-mayor.
3. What is the outline of the story?
4. How is Balzac's genius shown in the way in which he has told the story?
5. Why has this great story exerted such a powerful influence?

THE INNER LIFE OF SOCRATES.

⊗ ⊗ BY HAROLD N. FOWLER. ⊗ ⊗

(Professor of Greek, College for Women of Western Reserve University, Cleveland.)



MONG the many interesting persons who appeared upon the scene of Athenian life in the fifth century B. C. none is more interesting than Socrates, nor is there one whose influence upon the thought of later times has been so great. This influence is not due to his writings, for Socrates was not the writer of any book or treatise, nor to his great public acts, for he never held an office more important than that of senator, but to his personal character, his mental acumen, and his high ideals, which so impressed some of his younger contemporaries as to change, through their teachings and writings, the direction of Greek philosophical speculation and the current of Greek thought. It would be interesting to know what immediate surroundings, what family circumstances, what teachers helped to mold the intellect of this remarkable man, but our information is sadly defective.

Socrates was born at Athens in 469 B. C. His father, Sophroniscus, was a sculptor, but not an artist of great reputation, and his mother Phænarete, was a midwife. It was a poor family, in which husband and wife had to exert themselves to earn a living. Whether Socrates had brothers or sisters is unknown. As the son of an Athenian citizen he

* This is the eighth CHAUTAUQUAN study of the Inner Life of Historic Figures in France and Greece. Fénelon, by Charles M. Stuart, appeared in October; Pascal, by Nathaniel Luccock, appeared in November; Madame Guyon, by Jesse L. Hurlbut, appeared in December; Corot, by Adelia A. Field Johnston, appeared in January; The Chevalier Bayard, by Vincent Van Marter Beede, appeared in February; Odysseus, by Harold N. Fowler, appeared in March; Æschylus, by Harold N. Fowler, appeared in April.

Influence of personal character.

Early life and education.

was doubtless educated in gymnastics and music, but it is not probable that his education in these branches was long continued or conducted by the most expensive masters. He is said to have learned his father's trade, but to have given it up early in life. His marriage does not appear to have taken place until he was at least middle aged, for at the time of his death, when he was seventy years old, his eldest son is spoken of as a mere youth, and his two younger sons as children. His wife, Xanthippe, seems to have been a woman of somewhat narrow intellect and perhaps of imperfectly controlled emotions, but she does not seem to deserve her reputation as a termagant. At any rate, her influence upon Socrates did not begin to be exerted until his youth was long past.

The special influences of home life and immediate surroundings to which Socrates was subjected in his youth are, then, very imperfectly known. His more general surroundings, the conditions of material, mental, and moral life at Athens in his day, are, however, not less important. When Socrates was born the danger of Persian invasion was already past, but the war against Persia was still continued. Athens was already acknowledged as the great maritime power of Greece. In his boyhood the power of Athens grew, and the Delian Confederacy gradually changed into the Athenian empire. When he was still under forty years of age the Peloponnesian war broke out, to last until a few years before his death. The period of his life in which he would naturally be most influenced by his surroundings in the city coincides, therefore, with the time of the power of Pericles, the most brilliant period of Athenian history. Every young Athenian, no matter how poor, could share in his country's political greatness, could gaze upon the splendid monuments with which the policy of Pericles adorned the Acropolis and other parts of the city, could converse with the artists, tradespeople, poets, and sophists who came from all parts of the Greek world to add to the glory of imperial Athens. That Socrates took advantage of all opportunities we cannot doubt.

Among these opportunities the most important to a young man of active and speculative mind was that of listening to and conversing with the sophists, the men who made it their profession to teach wisdom. The kind of wisdom taught varied with the teacher. It might be simply rhetoric, the art of expressing oneself so as to have the most effect upon the audience, it might include rules or precepts for the conduct of public affairs or private business, or it might include speculations as to the origin and government of the universe, the real nature of phenomena, or the relation of mankind to the gods. In general, the sophists appear to have been honest men, who taught what they believed to be useful, and received for their teaching whatever their reputation enabled them to demand and their customers could pay. Some of the men who came to Athens in the time of Socrates were, like Anaxagoras, original thinkers of real power, while others were content with borrowed theories or vague generalities, but nearly all desired to give their hearers knowledge which would be of use to them in their daily life. Intercourse with such men cannot have failed to have some influence upon Socrates, and though his poverty doubtless prevented his attendance as a regular pupil upon their lectures, he could at least hear their public discourses, could talk with them in the street or market place, and could learn their doctrines at second hand from their regular pupils.

Our chief sources of information about Socrates are the works of two of his pupils, Plato and Xenophon, two men of very different mental qualities. Xenophon, the leader of the ten thousand Greeks in their retreat from Babylonia to Greece, was a practical person, not without high ideals, nor altogether lacking in imagination, but eminently prosaic. He loved and admired Socrates for his piety, self-restraint, courage, and rectitude, but had little appreciation of the intellectual greatness of the man or of the ethical scope of his teachings. Plato, on the other hand,

Times in which he lived.

Association with sophists.

Sources of our information.

THE INNER LIFE OF SOCRATES.

was a philosopher by nature, a born dramatist, and a poet of most brilliant and delicate imagination, who clothed his thoughts in what is perhaps the most perfect prose ever written. In his dialogues Socrates is the chief speaker, but the utterances attributed to him are the expressions of Plato's own thoughts. In many instances Plato's thoughts originated in the mind of his master, but Plato was himself one of the most original thinkers ever known, so that it is not always easy to tell whether a thought or doctrine attributed by Plato to Socrates really belongs to one or the other. So if we were to accept the likeness of Socrates drawn for us by Xenophon, we should lose many of his finer and grander features, while the portrait drawn by Plato's master hand contains many a line and many a delicate shade of expression embodying the artist's nature rather than that of his subject. It is only by a combination of what we learn from these two sources that we can gain a just conception of the character of Socrates as shown in his teaching and daily life.

A seeker after truth.

Socrates himself disclaimed the title of teacher, saying that he did not give instruction, but only sought the truth in company with those who chose to join him. And it is evident that he did not give any regular instruction as the sophists did. He went about the city, questioning those who would answer him, replying to his questioners with other questions, talking with one person or with a large number, in public places or in private houses, sometimes by appointment or special invitation, but oftener whenever he happened to meet anyone who was willing to talk with him. For these talks he received no payment, as the sophists did for their lectures, and this was in his own opinion an important difference between himself and them. They claimed that they had something valuable to teach, and therefore they asked payment for their teaching. He claimed to know nothing, and could therefore demand no payment. Socrates differed in method from the professed teachers of his day, but still more in the content of his teaching. Philosophical speculation had up to that time been chiefly concerned with the explanation of natural phenomena and the problems of creation, whereas the teaching of Socrates was chiefly ethical. As Xenophon says:

Ethical teachings.

"He did not talk about the nature of all things, as most of the others do, seeking to discover how the world, as the sophists call it, came into being and by what necessities each of the heavenly bodies is formed, but he even showed that those who ponder upon such matters are foolish. And first he asked them whether they thought they knew human affairs well enough already, that they proceeded to ponder upon such things, or whether they thought they were doing right in letting human affairs go and pondering upon what pertains to the gods. And he wondered that it was not evident to them that it is impossible for men to find out these things. . . . But he himself always talked about things that concern men, trying to find out what piety is, what impiety, what beauty, what ugliness, what justice, what injustice, what self-restraint, what madness, what courage, what cowardice, what a state, what a statesman, what the rule of men, what he who is fit to rule men, and about other things the knowledge of which he thought made people noble and good, while those who did not know them might rightly be called slavish."

The mission of Socrates.

About such matters Socrates conversed with young and old, rich and poor, wise and foolish. There can be no doubt that he regarded this as his duty. For this he gave up his trade as a sculptor, and condemned himself to lifelong poverty, believing that he was appointed by God to turn men away from the investigation of things they could not know to the study of themselves and their own souls. Chærephon once asked the oracle at Delphi if anyone was wiser than Socrates, and received the answer that there was no one. When Socrates heard this, he felt that it was his duty to find out what the god meant; for he was conscious of his own ignorance and therefore suspected some hidden meaning in the oracle. Accordingly he went to sophists, politicians, artisans, and others, men who had reputations for wisdom in various directions and degrees, and he found, according to Plato's account of what he said in his defense before the court, that all these were as ignorant as he, except that the artisans really did possess some practical knowledge of their trades, and

that all were afflicted with one kind of ignorance from which he was free. Each of them thought he knew many things he did not know, was ignorant, that is, of his own ignorance. This story sounds as if Socrates had been turned to the investigation of his fellow citizens and of the human mind in general only by the command of the oracle at Delphi; but this can hardly be what Plato wishes us to understand, for Chærephon could hardly have asked the oracle such a question if Socrates had not already distinguished himself. It is clear that Socrates must have turned to philosophy before the command of the god came to him in the form of an oracle, but it is equally certain that he considered philosophical investigation his divinely appointed duty. The oracle gave additional energy to his investigation by pointing out a definite question or object of search.

The story of the oracle shows that Socrates was not emancipated from the beliefs of his time. He accepted the religion of the state as his own, believing that every citizen should accept the state religion. Besides, he thought that speculation on religious matters was comparatively useless. Still, he was able to support his belief in the gods by argument. He saw how all things in this world appear to be rationally managed, and from this he concluded that there must be a reason or mind to manage them. This mind is not identified by him with Zeus or any other one of the popular gods, but neither is it very clearly distinguished from those gods. It seems rather as if Socrates had believed in a sort of comprehensive divine power and also in individual gods, each with his own attributes and qualities. He took part in sacred festivals, he prayed and sacrificed to individual gods, and his last words, according to Plato, were, "We owe a cock to Asclepius. Pay it, and do not neglect it." He prayed to the gods and spoke of the gods as many, yet at other times he spoke of God as one. "He believed," says Xenophon, "that the gods care for men not in the way in which most people believe; for they think the gods know some things and are ignorant of others; but Socrates thought that the gods know everything, the things that are said and those that are done and those that are planned in silence, and that they are present everywhere and give signs to men about all human affairs." And he revered an oath by the gods even at the risk of his life. "For once, when he was in the senate and had taken the senators' oath containing the clause that he would act in accordance with the laws, when he had been made presiding officer in the assembly and the people wished, contrary to the laws, to put to death by one vote all the nine generals, Thrasylus and Erasonides and their colleagues, he refused to put the question, though the people were angry with him, and many powerful men threatened him." There is no doubt that Socrates accepted the belief of the people and believed "in the gods in whom the city" believed, in spite of the fact that he was condemned to death on a charge of impiety; but his worship was a worship "in spirit and in truth," which recognized the unity of divinity in the persons of many gods, the dependence of the human upon the divine, and the duty to act according to divine will.

Religious belief.

A peculiar feature of the religion of Socrates was his belief in what he called a *daimonion*, a spiritual monitor or divine voice which guided his action. According to Plato's account, this monitor never urged Socrates to do anything, but stopped him when he was about to do anything wrong. Xenophon seems to be unacquainted with any such limitation of its action. This monitor has sometimes been identified with conscience, but conscience troubles us after wrong-doing, whereas the monitor of Socrates confined itself to advice concerning future action. It would be better to regard it as a series of intuitions based upon a highly developed moral sense, but Socrates believed that it was a special manifestation of divine interest in himself. From his earliest youth he had obeyed this divine monitor, which kept him from entering upon public life, but never hindered his philosophical investigations in obedience to the oracle.

Accepted belief of
the people.His spiritual
monitor.

Led a holy life.

Thus Socrates lived under the special care and guidance of deity. And his life was that of a holy man, though without asceticism. He never failed in piety toward the city's gods, he did his duty when in the senate with entire fearlessness and probity, when the thirty tyrants ordered him to go to Salamis and arrest one of his fellow citizens illegally, he disobeyed openly and went home, leaving the arrest to be made by others who feared death more than wrong-doing. As a soldier he was absolutely without fear, and endured every hardship without flinching. In his daily life he was frugal, not because he desired to deny himself, but because he believed that by frugality and self-restraint one gains in endurance and efficiency. He was, however, a genial companion at a feast, not forcing his frugality upon his companions.

Obedience to higher authority.

When the state assigned him a post as a soldier, Socrates considered it his duty to remain at his post unmoved by fear of death or anything else, and the same spirit of steadfast obedience to the higher authority governed his action when he was called upon as senator or as private citizen to do anything contrary to the laws. His duty toward the gods appeared to him in a similar light. The gods, he said, are our masters, to whom we owe obedience. Therefore, when he was convinced that the gods wished him to spend his life in the pursuit of knowledge, nothing could turn him from obedience to their command. Knowledge he regarded as the source of goodness, for he was convinced that no one ever does wrong knowingly, but only because he does not know the right. And the right is always advantageous. It is even better to suffer injustice than to act unjustly. In this life the righteous man is, he thought, rewarded by the improvement of his own character, and in the next world he will have the happiness of intercourse with the good men of past time. For Socrates believed in a future life, though he was unable to prove its existence by reason. When the time came for him to die he looked forward to his end without fear, confident that in the life to come he would be free from the encumbrance of the body and could satisfy his longing for truth by the contemplation of the eternal verities. Even if his belief in a future life should prove to be unfounded, he had, as it seemed to him, no reason to fear death, for in that case death would be as it were a deep and dreamless sleep.

The soul more than the body.

In the Homeric poems the body is spoken of as the real man, but for Socrates the body was an encumbrance which was to be cared for only that it might hinder the freedom of the soul as little as possible. This change of attitude marks the greatest advance in Greek religious thought. The way had no doubt been prepared for this by previous philosophers, but Socrates is the first to make the soul the one great object of human solicitude. Perhaps no better ending for this sketch of his thoughts and beliefs can be found than the prayer which Plato ascribes to him in the "Phædrus": "Beloved Pan and all ye other gods of this place, grant to me to be beautiful in the inward soul; and may my outward possessions be in harmony with those within. And may I regard the wise man as rich. But as for wealth of gold, may I have so much as no one could bear or carry except the man of self-restraint."

End of Required Reading.



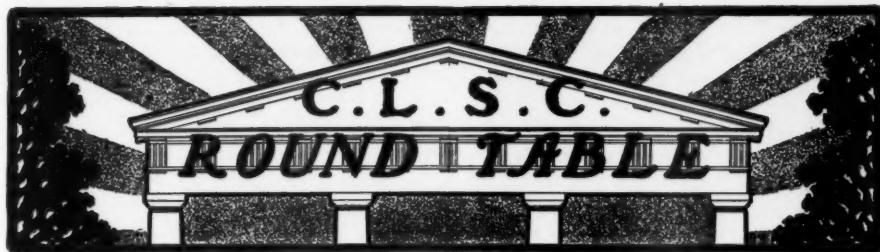
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Review Questions.

1. What were the chief influences in the early life and education of Socrates?
2. What historical events took place in his lifetime?
3. How was Socrates influenced by the sophists?
4. Why are our ideas of Socrates's character necessarily incomplete?
5. How did his teachings differ from those of the sophists?
6. How was he influenced by the Delphic oracle?
7. How far was his religious belief that of the people about him?
8. What was his belief in his spiritual monitor?
9. How did his principles influence his life?
10. What great advance was made in his time in the doctrine of the future life?



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And hark! how blithe the throstle sings!
He, too, is no mean preacher:
Come forth into the light of things,
Let Nature be your teacher.

—Wordsworth.

These are the days when the "madness of the spring" enters into our blood, and an inexpressible longing for the sea or the woods or the mountains seizes upon us. If we are poets, we write poetry, but as this means of relief is denied to most of us, our one resource—and it is by no means a meager one—is to cultivate the friendship of those who can express our feelings for us. Now is the time to enter into a new sympathy with Wordsworth and Sidney Lanier, with Maurice Thompson and Henry Van Dyke. Do you know John Burroughs's "Wake Robin"? Then be sure you have a copy within reach, and browse through it in your odd moments. "No day without a line" is a good motto just now. Keep a few books by these nature lovers close at hand, and let them reveal their thoughts to you in their own friendly fashion.

other important class duty, namely, to drop a line to the Class Secretary, Mrs. M. W. Jamieson of Warren, Pennsylvania, and tell her of your interest and your plans, and to send your mite for the class banner. Any one who has ever been the secretary of any organization knows that results are achieved only by a great outlay of time and labor. Do not wait for the secretary to write to you three times before you drop a line to her to assure her of your sympathy and interest in the class welfare. If you cannot send your contribution just yet, tell her so, but let her hear from you by the next mail after you read this paragraph. Even if you cannot be at Chautauqua, you have no idea how strong an interest your classmates who gather there will feel in you. Let them know that you are doing your share to uphold the dignity of the Twentieth Century Class.

THE DECENTNIAL OF THE CLASS OF 1891.

The following communication to the members of the Class of 1891 speaks for itself. It is ten years since the class graduated, and necessarily many of its members cannot now be reached. But there are many doubtless who are still interested in their *alma mater*, and who will be glad to know more of class plans. Will not every member of the C. L. S. C. of whatever class who reads this notice, be a committee of one to bring it to the attention of the Class of 1891? Even if you do not know any of the class, the chances are that there are several in your community, for they graduated more than three thousand strong. Please, therefore, write a little paragraph for your local paper, mentioning that the class is to hold its decennial rally this summer, and that THE CHAUTAUQUAN for May gives important informa-

IMPORTANT TO THE CLASS OF 1901.

During the month of May a special and important communication will be sent to all members of the Class of 1901. This will be headed "Report Blank," and will give full particulars regarding graduation, a list of Recognition days at the various assemblies, a blank for making final reports, details regarding seals, and all matters in which the graduate is vitally interested. The blank will not be mailed before the last of May, but any member of the Class of 1901 who fails to receive it by June 1 should notify the Cleveland Office. While you are waiting for this blank, do not fail to attend to that

tion. Few editors will refuse to print such an announcement if they understand its interest to the community. Let us all lend a hand to '91.

Class of 1891—

Will the Class of '91 please come to order? No other class can have the distinction of a decennial the first year of the twentieth century, and each "Olympian" should be interested in making the affair a success. Let every member who can, be present and take part in the ceremonies, and all who cannot be present, please send any communication of interest to the class poet, historian, secretary, or treasurer.

Poet, Miss F. B. Best, New York City.

Treasurer, Mr. W. H. Westcott, Holley, New York.
Historian and Secretary, M. A. Daniels, Box 255, Chautauqua, New York.

“NOBLESSE OBLIGE.”

From the earliest years of the C. L. S. C. its work has had the sympathy and coöperation of cultivated men and women who took up the course either because of their desire to have a personal understanding of its plan or to encourage others. Many such people have written of the pleasure which the work became for its own sake.

We are reminded of this by the recent action of the West Virginia legislature authorizing a statue of the late governor Francis H. Pierpont (of Virginia) for the capitol at Washington. Governor Pierpont was deeply interested in Chautauqua, and organized one of the earliest circles formed in West Virginia. This circle met in his home for a number of years. His daughter, in writing of his connection with the C. L. S. C., says: "He read almost all the Chautauqua books until within a few years, and I have many of the older ones with notes in his own handwriting on the edges. Although a college graduate, he found great pleasure in reviving his old studies."

A TRAVELING FACULTY.

One of the Chautauqua dreams which we have faith to believe will ere long be realized is that of a "traveling faculty." When that happy day comes, Chautauqua will have at her command a corps of enthusiastic men and women who will go out as teachers, so inspiring and guiding the reading circles that a discouraged Chautauquan will be an impossibility, and the Chautauqua "ideal" will be fully realized in hundreds of communities where it now languishes for want of leaders. The following recent report from Baltimore is significant as showing the splen-

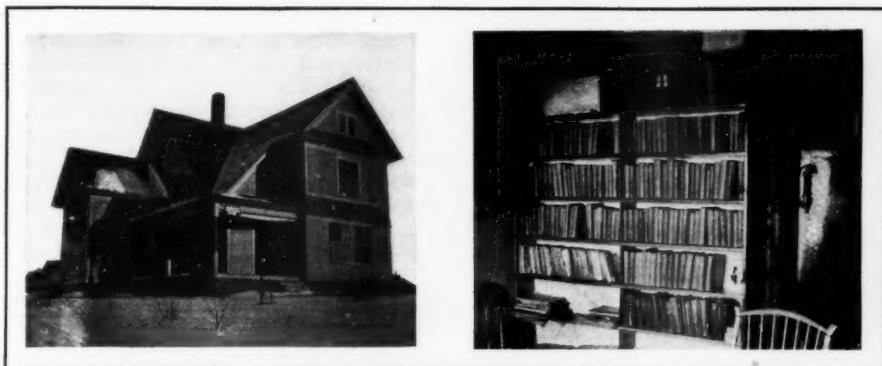
did possibilities of this Chautauqua dream which must yet come true:

The Strawbridge Circle of Baltimore had planned a review of "The French Revolution" about the first part of the year, but the Travel Club and the Greek studies claimed so much time that this idea was abandoned. Toward the last of March one of the members happened to see in a local paper that Dr. Shailer Mathews would deliver an address at a ministers' meeting the following day. The town was at once scoured from one end to the other, and Dr. Mathews was discovered at last, and he promised to attend the meeting of the circle the next day. So it was that the review of "The French Revolution" was conducted by the author himself, and in newspaper vernacular, the circle prides itself on having made quite a "scoop" on its esteemed contemporaries, as Dr. Mathews said this was the first circle meeting he had ever attended. The special subject assigned to him for his talk was "Modern Methods of Studying History," and in this connection he said that the historical student of today is not content to take his material at second hand, but insists on consulting original sources, if possible doing this on the very spot where the history itself was made. He then gave a most interesting account of his experiences in Paris, while gathering new material for his work. He explained how the inexorable hand of the landscape engineer in Paris had removed all but a very few traces of the Revolution, in the work of making Paris the most beautiful city in the world. He then described some of the gruesome mementoes that still remain, among others a tomb where the bones of ten or twelve of the proudest monarchs of the Old Régime were tumbled together in a space hardly large enough for one body, while, by the irony of fate, Louis XVI., who had been the only one to see the downfall of the kingdom in life, was honored with a tomb all to himself in death.

At the close of his talk Dr. Mathews allowed himself to be "quizzed" by the circle, and a number of extremely interesting points were thus brought out. Altogether the meeting was voted a red-letter day in the history of the circle.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND CHAUTAUQUA.

One of the most hopeful signs in the field of American education within the past few years has been the marked growth of the public library movement. Mr. Carnegie's splendid gifts meet a ready response everywhere, and help to create the demand which they also supply. Though possibly quite unknown to Mr. Carnegie, the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle has undoubtedly been his most efficient ally in creating a public taste for good literature. The homes in which Chautauqua has placed carefully selected libraries during the past twenty-three years can be numbered by hundreds of thousands, and these libraries represent not merely a collection of books placed on shelves for future reference, but books studied and discussed in the family and in the reading circle. Moreover, these Chautauqua books have in thousands of cases become traveling libraries. They have been loaned to readers



RESIDENCE AND OFFICE OF THE TOWN CLERK OF CHARLOTTE, VERMONT. THE PUBLIC LIBRARY, AN INTERIOR VIEW OF WHICH IS GIVEN, IS IN THE LEFT WING OF THE BUILDING.

who have found even a Chautauqua home library beyond their means. Naturally the influence of this home education has had its effect upon the community. People who have been encouraged to own books and to follow out lines of collateral reading are eager for a public library. The immense influence of Chautauqua in this respect can never be adequately estimated, but many illustrations of it can be given, and a special study of this phase of Chautauqua work is being made. In the circle news for this month will be found some very suggestive reports. The photograph of the library at Charlotte, Vermont, shows a public library in its beginnings; that of Bradford one in a further state of evolution. These reports are most significant. The Chautauqua ideal through "the broad outlook" which the reading course offers, means such a measure of culture in every home that the public library becomes a necessity even in the smallest communities. And it means also such faith in the best that is in us that the true Chautauquan from the nature of things becomes a philanthropist. He gives his thought and time and energy to giving his own town better educational facilities, and often the little public library cherished affectionately by the citizens of a village community represents a higher appreciation of literature and a more generous public spirit than that in a town which has not sacrificed so much for the public weal.

 A "MAN-OF-WAR" CIRCLE.

Some months ago THE CHAUTAUQUAN published a photograph of the United States gunboat *Nashville*, the present home of a C. L. S. C. graduate of the Class of 1900.

Now comes news of a new circle formed at Bermuda under the leadership of Lieutenant Rogers of H. M. S. *Terror*, the Royal Navy. Lieutenant Rogers first heard of Chautauqua in North Devon, England, and his tenacity in following up an idea shows that the circle have a leader who is likely to see them through the course. He writes: "THE CHAUTAUQUANS are delightful reading, and are very helpful." We shall anticipate further reports of this most promising circle which has the good wishes of its classmates of 1904 and of the circles generally.

 A NEW CIRCLE IN INDIA.

The circle at Chautauqua, New York, have a corresponding member in British India, a native of that country who came almost by accident to Chautauqua in the summer of '99 and remained there throughout the following winter. She has now returned to her home in the Punjab, and evidently has the missionary spirit. We quote from her letter written to the circle at Chautauqua:

"I wish you and the other members of the circle a happy New Year and much pleasure and prosperity in the present century. I am glad to say I have found one person who will join our circle. He is in Lahore, and is studying for his Lahore B. A. examination, — Mr. Yalal. He and I will get one set of books and read them by turns.

"I often think of the circle and remember the pleasant time I spent with you all last winter. I hope the members of the circle will sometimes think of the two members far away in this distant land. I have been so busy settling down after the long journey. We had a calm passage from Canada to England, and a very delightful voyage from Marseilles to Bombay. I was delighted to see my country and my people, but it grieves me much to see how very, very ignorant the majority of our people are, and what little I can do for them.

"When I was reading 'A Reading Journey Through France' I never dreamed that I should be coming through

France and would also see the Exposition. Since I wrote this another person wants to join the circle, so we shall be three now. The name of the third member is Mr. Qadir Khan."



PREPARATION FOR FOREIGN TRAVEL.

Chautauqua has a growing field of usefulness in meeting the wants of travelers by providing clearly defined courses of reading related to a given route. "The Reading Journey Through France," published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN a year ago, was printed in pamphlet form last summer, and has been in great demand by clubs and individual students. "The Reading Journey in the Orient," which has excited great interest this year, will also be published separately. The following letter from an Ohio teacher shows the appreciation in which these courses are held: "I am planning to spend my summer vacation of three months in England. Have you anything on England or the British Isles similar to the 'Reading Journey Through France,' — something that gives routes, centers, etc.? I have of course been studying painting, architecture, etc., but now I want something like that French Journey." The despatch of Miss Susan Hale's Chautauqua study pamphlet, "A Reading Journey Through England," brought the following reply, "A thousand thanks. Just what I wanted."



Chautauqua students will feel a special interest in the announcement that Professor Sterrett of Amherst College has accepted a call to Cornell University. He is to fill the chair of Greek recently occupied by Professor Benjamin Ide Wheeler, now president of the University of California. Professor Sterrett possesses scholarly gifts of the highest order and also a very happy faculty of making his scholarship available to the general public. His article on "Glimpses of Asia Minor" in the February CHAUTAUQUAN was a revelation to most of us of the rich associations and present-day attractions of that famous province.



THE ODYSSEY ON THE MODERN STAGE.

It is announced in *Literature* (London) that Mr. Stephen Phillips, the author of "Paola and Francesca," has undertaken to dramatize Homer's "Odyssey" for the stage, and

that the new play will be produced by Mr. Beerbohm Tree in London next September. A contemporary in commenting upon the idea, says: "The 'Odyssey' has sometimes been called the earliest of novels. Therefore, in a day when novels have scarcely come forth from the press before the 'dramatic rights' are disposed of, it seems fitting that this long-deferred privilege of dramatization should be accorded Homer's ancient 'historical romance.'" Every lover of the old Homeric poem will wonder how in its new dress it will adjust itself to our ideas of what the living "Odyssey" should be. Will it



PUBLIC LIBRARY AT BRADFORD, VERMONT.

help to bring back to us "the glory that was Greece," or is imagination such a vital part of the splendid old epic that it will suffer under the light of common day? Whatever the result, our Chautauqua studies will give us a keen interest in this twentieth-century Homeric play, and in these days of the decline of the classics any influence which turns us back for a time to the fountainhead of literary culture must be regarded as a happy circumstance.



THE AMERICAN SCHOOL AT ATHENS.

Our readers have a rare privilege this month in hearing the story of the excavations of Old Corinth by the excavator himself, Professor Richardson, Director of the American School at Athens. It may be of interest to note here a few facts about this now famous school, as its work is often imperfectly understood. For fifty years the French government has supported a school at Athens for the study of Greek antiquities, and for conducting excavations. The German School has a history of more than

twenty-five years, but the American and British Schools date from a later period. The American School was first opened in October, 1882, under the direction of Professor Goodwin of Harvard, with a library of four hundred volumes, and eight students. Different American universities contributed the money necessary to defray the expenses, but the immediate success of the enterprise and its possibilities for greater usefulness made evident the need of endowment. In 1884 the Greek government gave a plot of land adjoining that of the British School, and an effort was made in America to raise the necessary \$25,000 for a building. Boston promptly responded with \$19,000, and New York contributed the remainder. Architects gave their services, manufacturing houses contributed flooring, doors, mantels, an iron staircase, etc., and on March 12, 1887, the corner-stone of the school was laid, the Greek minister of foreign affairs being in attendance as the representative of his government.

The earlier system of annual directors chosen from different universities was felt to be a disadvantage, and the term was at length extended to five years, while the presence each year of the representative of some university was secured by an annual professorship. The school has conducted important excavations upon different sites, and now the work at Corinth promises

A member of the Class of 1904 is making good use of the Book Lovers' Library to secure some of the supplementary books bearing upon the regular course. She writes: "I cannot express the pleasure I have received from the Chautauqua course and supplementary reading. It has been a revelation to me that subjects which I once thought dry can be so interesting."

CHAUTAUQUA EXTENSION.

Among the plans carried out for the exten-



THE AMERICAN SCHOOL OF CLASSICAL STUDIES AT ATHENS.

sion of work of Chautauqua during the present year has been the use of a stereopticon lecture upon the Chautauqua movement. The lecture presents views of Chautauqua itself, showing the nature of the summer life there and the relation of the reading circle to the Assembly, and also a large number of pictures illustrating the countries studied in the C. L. S. C. course for the current year. Several sets of slides were prepared, and these have been used most effectively by lecturers in various parts of the country. Mr. Cattern of the Chautauqua Bureau of Extension recently made a trip with the lecture through Kentucky, Tennessee, and West Virginia, visiting circles and presenting C. L. S. C. work in other places where no circles exist. The enthusiastic reception everywhere given to this presentation of the work of Chautauqua was a new revelation of the possibilities of the C. L. S. C. Expressions of appreciation of the present course and of the efforts made by the management to adapt the work to the varied needs of the people, were very marked. The field which is waiting for Chautauqua's traveling faculty was never more evident than now. There is a wider field of usefulness for Chautauqua in the future than it has yet known.

One of these sets of stereopticon views has been doing good work up in the mountains of North Carolina under the leadership of Mr. and Mrs. J. M. Ransier. For several



LINTEL OF JEWISH SYNAGOGUE AT CORINTH.

great results. The accompanying pictures show the lintel of the synagogue referred to in Professor Richardson's article, also the American and British Schools. The highest building is the American School.

weeks during the winter they gave the lecture twice a week at different places. The illustration shows them about to start on a tour with their Shetland pony team. Twenty-two of these little thoroughbreds constitute their "family," and as the pony farm is many miles distant from the various points visited, a day's journey over the mountains is a characteristic feature of the tour. Mrs. Ransier describes some of their experiences as follows:

To get in practise, we gave the views first in our own home to the servants and their families. They not only enjoyed but appreciated them. The next night we gave the views in a schoolhouse about five miles out in the mountains known as "The Gap." It is a typical mountain "meeting-house," the winding road leading to it having about thirty or forty "winds" or scallops in three miles. Mountains both near and distant, charming little valleys below, glorious skies above, combine with changing atmospheric effects in producing new landscapes at every turn. The people in the mountains proved very interested audiences, giving the attention that the Phaeacians must have given to the recital of the wonderful places, sights, and adventures seen by Odysseus. Varied as our experiences have been, there are yet people here who are meeting Chautauqua plans and work as something they can enjoy and have been anticipating. So, as Chautauqua has entered these mountains, we believe it will remain.



The pleasant way in which Chautauqua opens up new avenues of interest is illustrated by this letter, dated January 31, from a Kentucky member of the Class of 1903:

"You can imagine the delight I experienced as an enthusiastic Chautauquan when I tell you that last night, so soon after finishing my 'Reading Journey Through Egypt, Palestine and Syria,' I had the pleasure of entertaining a last year's traveler to these countries. How I took advantage of this opportunity to secure a word of mouth description of these interesting regions! I regret so much that I forgot to ask him about the lepers, and also which to him was the more awe-inspiring, that wonderful work of nature, the Rock of Gibraltar, or that wonderful work of man, the Great Pyramid.



A BIRD CAFÉ.

The practical results of last year's bird study are being felt in many circles as the spring days bring the birds back to us again. The "Gleaners" of Norwalk, Ohio, report: "We still continue our study of birds, and out of it has grown practical benefit to our feathered neighbors, in that they are better protected and more effort is made to provide for their wants. As one example, in my yard a large lilac bush has been transformed into a bird café, and from its branches are sus-

pended soup bones, suet, meat, open-work bags of crumbs, seeds, etc. Among the regular visitors and patrons of the café are titmice, blue jays, downy woodpeckers, chickadees, sparrows, nuthatches, etc., which afford a great amount of enjoyment to the proprietor of the café."

In this connection attention is called to the "Game of American Birds," the price



LECTURERS TOURING WITH SHETLAND PONY TEAM.

of which is sixty cents. The game can be ordered through the Chautauqua Office. We copy one of the cards below, which will give an idea of the character of the game:

AMERICAN GOLDFINCH.

Family Fringillidae.

Arrives in May.

Departs in September.

What winsome beauty, dressed in yellow and black with trimmings of white, has a canary-like song?

What merry, gregarious rovers do not mate until so late in the summer that their compactly-built, cottage-like nest is not disturbed by the cowbird's plebeian egg?

What confiding bird in golden livery with distinct markings is known by many titles? His food is chiefly the seeds of the thistle, sunflower, dandelion, and rank, wild grasses.

What bird sings with his mate sweet nesting-time melodies? His babies rest on soft thistle-down. In the autumn he changes his coat and then resembles his mate.

Nest—On horizontal branches; of lichens, moss, and vegetable down.

Eggs—Five, bluish white, spotted with purplish gray.



"The study of nature has yielded a new conception of the nature of the divine will expressed through law, of the divine design interpreted by the order and progress of the phenomena of the physical universe, of the marvelous beauty of the divine mind which Tennyson was thinking of when, looking long and steadfastly into the depths of a slow moving stream, he cried out in awe and wonder, 'What an imagination God has!' Men are saner, healthier, wiser, since they began to find God in nature and to receive the facts of nature as a divine revelation. The soul has looked away from herself and out into the marvelous universe, and learned from a new teacher the wonder, the beauty, and the greatness of her life." —Hamilton W. Mabie.

"SHALL AND WILL."

Probably no one feature of our daily speech causes more perplexity to the average person who wishes to speak correctly than the use of "shall" and "will." The absurdity of the Frenchman's remark, "I will drown and nobody shall help me," is quite evident to us all, yet some of our own slips with these same words often make us say what we really do not mean.

Professor Edward Rowland Sill of the University of California once wrote a very happy article on the use of will and shall, addressed to "My dear fellow being." In the form of a friendly chat he told his fellow beings something of the history of these two words, and we select from this letter some parts which readers of the Round Table may find helpful in clearing up their difficulties:

I was reading a story of yours the other day in a certain magazine, and was struck by a little mistake in grammar that you contrived to repeat a good many times. . . . It is about the improper use, yea, the inveterate snarling up and inextricable entanglement of the uses of *shall* and *will*, *should* and *would*. "Oh," you say, "is that all! Why, everybody makes mistakes in *them*." No, in fact, not everybody. You will find that our best writers never use these little auxiliaries improperly. Indeed, it is the absolutely perfect discrimination between such words that gives one charm to their style.

Know, then, that *shall* and *will* were two Anglo-Saxon verba. These were not auxiliary verbs, but genuine independent verbs; "*ie willē*," meaning "*I wish*" or "*I determine*," and "*ie seal*," meaning "*I owe*" or "*I ought*." In the Anglo-Saxon version:



MOUNTAIN ROAD IN NORTH CAROLINA.

of the Parable of the Unjust Steward the question "*How much owest thou?*" is rendered "*Hū miel sealst thu?*" These two verbs, *to shall* and *to will*, naturally came to be used very often with the infinitive mood (*i.e.*, the noun form) of other verbs, this infinitive being the object of the mental act of *shalling* and *willing* (owing or wishing). For example, "*ie will leornian Englise*" meant "*I will to learn* (or, *I will the learning of English*)." Just so with *shall*; "*I ought the learning of English*."

You see, therefore, the fundamental distinction between these two words. Shalling involves the idea of influence or pressure or obligation, from without; willing, the idea of self-determination, from within. . . . You perceive now the absurdity of the Hibernicism, "*I will be obliged to refuse your request*;" for this means, "*I wish, or will, to be obliged to refuse it*." What we desire to express is our being under the outside pressure of circumstances; so we say, properly, "*I shall be obliged*."

You can see how, since willing to do an act, and feeling a pressure to do an act, are both likely to result in the future doing of it, there would come about a habit of expressing mere future expectation by these combinations. And it soon came to be felt as an instinct of courtesy, in expressing a future act, to speak humbly in the first person, as if about to do it because of outside pressure,— "*I shall do it*," while the second and third persons are politely represented as doing it of their own free will,— "*you will*," or "*he will*," do it. For instance, "*I shall pay my just debts*" is as if one said, "*not that it's any virtue in me, but I must*"; while "*you will pay your just debts*," implies that of course you wish to, and would, whether compelled or not.

So much for expressing mere futurity; but of course where determination is to be expressed, the case is just reversed. Here the first person says, "*I will*" and the second and third are represented as dominated by this outside determination, "*you shall do it*," "*he shall do it*."

Let us apply the above bit of history of our two words in the following examples. Let each one work out the sentences for himself and bring them to the circle meeting where they may be compared and discussed. We give first a summary of the two forms in which these words are used:

To Express Futurity:	To Express Determination:		
<i>I shall</i>	<i>We shall</i>	<i>I will</i>	<i>We will</i>
<i>Thou wilt</i>	<i>You will</i>	<i>Thou shalt</i>	<i>You shall</i>
<i>He will</i>	<i>They will</i>	<i>He shall</i>	<i>They shall</i>

If I don't hear from you, — I telephone?

I — attend to it without fail.

I — be very grateful for a prompt reply.

He — do it whether or no.

We — be happy to have you go with us.

We — like the place, I am sure.

— you go, if he does not come?

They — be sent for at once.

We — fail if something does not happen.

— I go if things are favorable?

"READ LECTURES."

Some years ago the C. L. S. C. instituted a plan of "Read Lectures." Several excellent courses of lectures were prepared by capable men, and these lectures were put into mimeograph form, and loaned to circles and clubs. One of the series was by Professor Owen Seaman, a graduate of Cambridge, England, on "Greek Social Life." This series has been given very widely, and has proved a very excellent means of arousing interest in Greek topics and also of forming a basis for club work. The plan adopted by

the office is to furnish the lectures with tickets and syllabi. The club or circle giving the course sells course tickets at fifty cents each, and divides the gross receipts with the Chautauqua Office, returning the lectures and unused syllabi. A club in Charleston, South Carolina, has recently given this course to an audience of more than forty people, and reports that the course proved most interesting. Their share of the receipts was more than ten dollars. A C. L. S. C. graduate circle in Vineland, New Jersey, has been giving another of the series, on Browning, this winter with excellent success. Aside from the pleasure of the course and the stimulating influence upon the community, this plan offers an opportunity to circles who want to help along their class building or banner or start a library fund.

course, 'A Reading Journey in the Orient,' that I now wish memoranda for number four."



A graduate of the Class of '98 sojourning in Europe has been studying one of the C. L. S. C. special courses on the Bible. She writes:

"You will find enclosed the memoranda filled out for the 'One Year Course,' that I commenced about two years ago, and have just completed in Germany; the other part also has been accomplished during my travels: part in America, Bermuda, France, and England. I have found it much more interesting since my Palestine trip last spring. The whole course I have found to be very interesting, even with the effort it has cost. But I am fully convinced that without a system and a form of an obligation, I should not have accomplished so much within a stated time. I hope to complete the full four years' Bible course this coming year, and trust I shall be fully compensated for all my efforts. I have felt so much the benefit of the regular C. L. S. C. course of study I completed in '98 during my travels, and recommend it whenever I can. Two young ladies graduated in 1900 through the use of my books and are so pleased over their efforts. I hope to keep the books in circulation. Another is using them now."



The interest felt by graduates in the new garnet seal courses for this year is expressed by a graduate of '89: "I am so delighted with numbers two and three in the special



OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

APRIL 29—MAY 6—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Critical Studies in French Literature, Alexandre Dumas and "The Three Musketeers." The Inner Life of Aeschylus.

Required Books: Grecian History. Chap. 16. Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 14. The Human Nature Club. Chaps. 11 and 12.

MAY 6—13—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chaps. 29 and 30.

Required Books: Grecian History. Chap. 17. Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 13.

MAY 13—20—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Rivalry of Nations. Chaps. 31 and 32.

Required Books: Grecian History, concluded. Homer to Theocritus. Chap. 15.

MAY 20—27—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: A Reading Journey in the Orient.

Required Book: The Human Nature Club. Chaps. 13 and 14.

MAY 27—JUNE 3—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Critical Studies in French Literature, Balzac's "Eugénie Grandet." The Inner Life of Socrates.

Required Book: The Human Nature Club. Chaps. 15, 16, and 17.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

The Greek War for Independence is alluded to very briefly in our history, and circles will do well to familiarize themselves with its details, especially the noteworthy episodes of Mesolonghi and Navarino. A full list of references will be found under "The Travel Club" for this month.

APRIL 29 - MAY 6 -

1. Roll-call: Answered by paragraphs from Highways and Byways.
2. A Study of "The Three Musketeers": Three papers on, 1. The plot, its historical features. 2. Dumas's character drawing. 3. His power of description. As many of the circle as possible should try to read this famous story, so that the papers may be discussed. The papers should be illustrated where possible with selections from the book.
3. Reading: Selections from "Crete and the Cretan Question" in the April CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. Character Studies: Epaminondas. (Study him in much the same manner as was adopted for Pericles.) Socrates. (Study him as a reformer. What type in our own day does he most nearly resemble?)
5. Reading: Selection from cover of C. L. S. C. membership book.
6. Discussion: "The Human Nature Club." Chapters XI. and XII., using the review questions as a basis.

MAY 6-13 -

1. Roll-call: Answered by quotations concerning nature from Burroughs or Wordsworth.
2. Map Review of Chapter XVII., "Grecian History."
3. Character Studies: Philip of Macedon; Demosthenes. (See THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Vol. IX., page 445. Compare him with great orators of our time: Webster, Gladstone.)
4. Quiz on Rivalry of Nations.
5. Reading: Selection from "Primitive Industrial Civilization of China" (page 126 of this magazine).
6. Reading: Burlingame as an Orator. J. G. Blaine. (*Atlantic Monthly*, November, 1870.)
7. Discussion: The relation of foreign missions to the Boxer rebellion. (See current magazines.)

MAY 13 - 20 -

1. Roll-call: Answered by reports from Highways and Byways.
2. Reading: Selection from closing stanzas of Shelley's "Hellas."
3. Paper: Byron and the Greek War for Independence. (See Life of Byron by John Nichol or others. Also Mesolonghi, page 199 of this magazine.)
4. Readings: The Death of Daphnis. (See "Homer to Theocritus.") Also "Theocritus" by C. H. Langhorne (in Stedman's "Victorian Anthology.") The Battle of Navarino. (See page 199 of this magazine.)
5. Brief reports from individuals representing Russia,

Germany, Great Britain, the United States, France, and Japan, telling what each country wants in China, and why she wants it. These reports should be given in the first person.

6. Debate: Resolved, That the integrity of China should be preserved. (See articles and editorials in current journals.)

MAY 20-27 -

1. Roll-call: Answered by brief descriptions of famous places in Greece, selected from books of travel or from Baedeker. (See "Rambles and Studies in Greece," Mahaffy. "Greek Art on Greek Soil," Hoppin; "Excursions in Greece," Diehl; "Greek Vignettes," Harrison, etc.)
2. Paper: Tanagra and Its Figurines. (See "Excursions in Greece," Diehl; and selections on page 200 of this magazine.)
3. Reading: A Great Discovery of Greek Statues. (See *The Independent*, February 28, 1901; or selection from same article in *The Literary Digest*, March 16, 1901.)
4. Papers: The American School at Athens. (See *The Nation*, July 29, 1897, article by J. R. S. Sterrett; also THE CHAUTAUQUAN, January and February, 1893.) The French, British, and German Schools. (See *The Nation*, July 1, 22, and August 26, 1897.)
5. Book Review: "Like Another Helen," George Horton.
6. Reading: Selection from "Educational Use of Hypnotism," Quackenbos. (*Harper's Magazine*, July, 1900.)
7. Discussion: Chapters XIII. and XIV. in "The Human Nature Club," each member being assigned a question in advance.

MAY 27 - JUNE 3 -

1. Paper: Honoré Balzac. (See bibliography.)
2. Reports on "Eugénie Grandet": Each chapter of the novel should be assigned to a different member. A summary of the book should then be given chapter by chapter, no one report occupying more than eight minutes. The report should tell the story, and include, if feasible, a brief selection from the chapter illustrating some of the author's qualities of style as noted by Professor Trent.
3. Quiz and discussion of Chapters XV. and XVI. in "The Human Nature Club."
4. Roll-call: The several incidents related in Chapter XVII. should be assigned to different members, who should give the incident and explain the psychological reason for it.

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

The struggle at Mesolonghi and other features of the Greek War of Independence will be found described in Larned's "History for Ready Reference," selected in part from "Decisive Battles Since Waterloo," by T. W. Knox. Fyffe's "History of Modern Europe," Vol. II., devotes a chapter to the revolution. The biographies of Byron give accounts of his connection with the war. Finlay's "History of Greece" is a recognized authority, but is a large work and only to be found in especially well equipped libraries. Volumes VI. and VII. discuss the revolution and later events.

First Week —

1. Roll-call: Answered by descriptions of the chief public buildings and objects of interest in mod-

ern Athens. (See Baedeker's "Greece." "Modern Athens," *Scribner's Magazine*, January, 1901. Articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for

May and June, 1893, by W. E. Waters. Also Poole's Index.)

2. Papers: The Temple of Wingless Victory. The Erechtheum. The Theater of Dionysus. The Street of Tombs. (See Baedeker. "Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens," Harrison and Verrall. "Rambles and Studies in Greece," Mahaffy.)
3. Readings: Travelers' descriptions of the Parthenon. (See Poole's Index and all available books of travel on Greece.)
4. Papers: The Parthenon as a center of religion, and a work of art. (See "Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens," and Baedeker's "Greece.") Recent discoveries on the Acropolis. (See Gardner's "New Chapters in Greek History." Diehl's "Excursions in Greece.")
5. Reading: The Parthenon by Moonlight. R. W. Gilder. (See "In Palestine.")
6. Book Review: "Like Another Helen," George Horton.

Second Week —

1. Roll-call: Answered by reports on Demeter and on the Greek view of life after death as illustrated in the myths of Pluto, Proserpine, Orpheus, and Eurydice; also the Inner Life of Odysseus, of Aeschylus, and of Socrates. (See THE CHAUTAUQUAN for March, April, and May, 1901. Also Gayley's "Classic Myths.")
2. Reading: Hymn to Demeter. (Translated by George Chapman.)
3. Paper: Eleusis and the Mysteries. (See "The Gods in Greece," Dyer. "New Chapters in Greek History," Gardner. "Excursions in Greece," Diehl. Also Holm's "History of Greece.")
4. Papers: The Battle of Marathon; Selections from travelers' descriptions of Marathon and Sunium.

("Rambles and Studies in Greece," Mahaffy.)

5. Reading: Pheidippides. Robert Browning.

Third Week —

1. Roll-call: Answered by reports on Eleutherae, Parnassus, Helicon, Pharsala, Amphissa, Aegosthena, Chæronea, Orchomenus and Mesolonghi. (See Baedeker and Smith's Classical Dictionary.)
2. Papers: Plateau in History; Thebes and its Associations. (See histories of Greece and "Homer to Theocritus.")
3. Reading: Selections from travelers' experiences in northern Greece.
4. Paper: The Work of the French School at Delphi. (See *The Nation*, July 1, 1897.)
5. Reading: Tanagra and its Figurines. (See Diehl's "Excursions in Greece." Also page 200 of this magazine.)

Fourth Week —

1. Roll-call: Reports on mythological associations of Corinth, the fountain of Pirene, Medea, Glauce, etc. (See Baedeker for list.)
2. Papers: Corinth in history; Biblical associations of Corinth; Corinth in literature.
3. Readings: Selection from Byron's "Childe Harold;" and from chapter on Corinth, in Mahaffy's "Rambles and Studies in Greece."
4. Papers: The French, German, American, and British Schools at Athens. (See *The Nation* for July 1, 22, and 29, and August 26, 1897. The schools are taken up in succession in four articles. See also "The Semi-Centennial of the French School," R. B. Richardson, *The Independent*, June 28, 1898; also THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Vol. XVI., pages 387, 575.)
5. Reading: "A Great Discovery of Greek Statues." (See *The Independent*, February 28, 1901; or selection from same article in *The Literary Digest*, March 16, 1901.)

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "GRECIAN HISTORY."

CHAPTER XVII. THE DECLINE AND FALL.

1. What kinship had the Macedonians with the Greeks? 2. What opportunity had Philip to find out the weakness of Greece? 3. In what did that weakness consist? 4. How did Philip strengthen his position? 5. What was the condition of the Athenian democracy at this time? 6. What was the Social war, and how did Philip make use of it? 7. What quarrel over Delphi arose among the cities? 8. How did this again give Philip the advantage? 9. Why was not Athens aroused by the warning of Demosthenes? 10. What fate overtook the Olynthian league, and why? 11. How was Athens compelled to submit to a humiliating treaty with Philip? 12. How was Phocis finally subdued and the Sacred war closed? 13. How were the Athenians roused to attempt one more effort for free-

dom? 14. How did Byzantium meet the assaults of Philip? 15. What was the cause of trouble with Amphissa? 16. How did this lead to the final struggle at Chæronea?

GREECE SINCE THE CONQUEST BY PHILIP.

1. How was Greek civilization extended under Alexander the Great? 2. When did Greece become a Roman province, and under what circumstances? 3. How did Greece finally become separated from Rome? 4. What nationalities gained a foothold in Greece after the decline of Constantinople? 5. What influences made the war of Greek Independence successful? 6. What foreign princes then attempted to rule Greece? 7. What have been the results of the unfortunate war of 1896-7?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "HOMER TO THEOCRITUS."

CHAPTER XIII. THE ORATORS. DEMOSTHENES.

1. How did the Greeks value the power of speech? Illustrate from historic examples. 2. Why did oratory become an art to be studied carefully? 3. Describe the two classes of teachers of oratory. 4. What was the work of the professional speech-writer? 5. How far was this craft developed in the case of Antiphon? 6. What personal interest have we in Andocides? 7.

Why is Lysias especially famous among Attic prose writers? 8. Give an account of the career and influence of Isocrates. 9. Of Aeschines. 10. For what reason and by what means did Demosthenes become an orator? 11. Mention some of his earlier speeches which show his close relation to public interests. 12. Describe his efforts to defeat Philip of Macedon. 13. Describe the circumstances relating to the oration "On

the Crown." 14. Show how the orators of the earlier time had prepared the way for Demosthenes.

CHAPTER XV. THEOCRITUS AND HIS AGE.

1. How was the literary leadership of Athens recognized throughout the fourth century, B. C.? 2. How did the loss of political liberty affect the creative spirit of the Greeks? 3. How was Greek influence widely

diffused at this time? 4. For what kind of audience was the Alexandrine literature written? 5. What new forms did the epigram take? 6. Describe the work of the great library of Alexandria. 7. What is meant by bucolic poetry? 8. Why did this branch of poetry come to perfection in Sicily? 9. What is known of the life of Theocritus? 10. Upon what story is the most famous poem of Theocritus founded?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "THE HUMAN NATURE CLUB."

CHAPTER XIII. SUGGESTION. XIV. IMITATION.

1. What does the forgetfulness of a person who has been hypnotized show? 2. Why do people do absurd things in the hypnotic state? 3. How is the hypnotic state like that of sleep? 4. What instances show remarkably acute sense perceptions in the hypnotic state? 5. Show how in ordinary life we are often extremely susceptible to suggestion. 6. Show how the manner of suggestion in ordinary life differs from that used with hypnotized people. 7. Give illustrations showing that suggestion plays a very important part in many phases of our life. 8. How is suggestion used effectively in medical science? 9. What has it to do with mental healing and Christian science? 10. What mental process may explain our tendency to imitate others? 11. How is this affected by our admiration or dislike for people?

CHAPTER XV. MENTAL TRAINING.

1. To what mental processes do our expressions "memory," "attention," and "reason" refer? 2. Does special training in any one line necessarily increase our ability in some other direction? Give illustration. 3. Describe one kind of special accomplishments which may also have general value. 4. How can special

training give a man ideas which will apply in other situations? 5. How does this training affect our dealings with seemingly different things which really contain the same elements? 6. How does this apply to things which are similar?

CHAPTER XVI. HEREDITY AND ENVIRONMENT.

1. Upon what three kinds of influences does the mental life of every human being depend? 2. Which of these three is perhaps the most important, and why? 3. Which of these is probably responsible both for a man's general ability and for his special mental gifts? 4. Why do children of the same parents differ so radically? 5. What most important characteristics of human nature are the results of education after birth? 6. How may the mother's physical health as well as her character affect the child? 7. Give some of the reasons why we cannot say that parents can alter the germ inheritance of their children. 8. What three views are held by students of criminal life? 9. Why are criminal acts often performed by people who have not a criminal make-up? 10. What does the history of the Juke family seem to show? 11. What facts have been noted in the study of juvenile offenders? 12. What are some of the mental characteristics of average criminals?

NOTES ON THE GREEK WAR OF INDEPENDENCE AND ON TANAGRA.

THE SIEGE OF MESOLONGHI.

Mesolonghi. This insignificant town which took its rise in a settlement of fishermen last century, was the center and chief arsenal of Western Hellas in the Greek War of Liberation, and was heroically defended against the Turks by Mavrokordatos in 1822, and by Marco Bozzaris in 1823. After the latter siege its fortifications were restored and strengthened, with the zealous coöperation of Lord Byron, who transferred his residence from Cephalonia to Mesolonghi in January, 1824, but succumbed in the following April to a fever heightened if not produced by his exertions. A third siege was begun by Kloutagi and Ibrahim Pasha on April 27, and carried on for a whole year. At length, under the compulsion of famine, the garrison determined to make an effort to cut their way through the enemy. The desperate attempt was made at midnight on April 22, 1826, when three thousand soldiers and six thousand unarmed persons, including women and children, threw themselves on the Turkish lines. Only thirteen hundred men and two hundred women, with a few children, succeeded in this effort; the rest were driven back to the town by volleys of grape-shot, and mercilessly cut down by the pursuing Turks. The Greeks set fire to many of the powder magazines, and blew up friends and foes alike. With the capture of Mesolonghi the whole of West Hellas was again in the hands of the Porte. In 1828 the Turkish garrison surrendered without resistance. Outside the east gate, near the large military hospital, is the grave of the bold and noble Marco

Bozzaris, who fell in a sortie in August, 1823. Another tomb contains the heart of Lord Byron, whose body was conveyed to England. A monument to the poet was erected here in 1881, but the house in which he lived stands no longer. — *Baedeker's "Greece."*

THE BATTLE OF NAVARINO.

Pylos or Navarino is now locally known as Neokastro. The admirably sheltered bay of Pylos seems as though intended to play an important part in the history of the Greeks. . . . The name Navarino, which has but recently passed out of use, was derived from some Navarrese mercenaries, who settled here in 1381. The Turks captured the port in 1498, and it remained in their hands until the establishment of Greek independence, except in 1644-48 and 1686-1715, when it was held by the Venetians, and 1770, when the Russians occupied it. In 1821 the Greeks made themselves masters of the town, but in 1825 they were forced to retire before Ibrahim Pasha, who landed here with a strong Egyptian-Turkish fleet, and devastated Messenia with the utmost ferocity. The eventful occurrence of October 20, 1827, which ended the Greek War of Liberation, is well known. Admiral Codrington, in command of the united English, French, and Russian fleet of observation, had demanded the immediate evacuation of the entire Morea by Ibrahim Pasha, and the withdrawal of the Turkish fleet. On these demands being refused, Codrington entered the harbor with twenty-six men-of-war and twelve hundred and seventy

cannon, and annihilated the greater part of the Turkish fleet in barely two hours. Of the eighty-two Turkish ships with about two thousand guns, only twenty-nine remained afloat. The Turks lost about six thousand men; the Allies had one hundred and seventy-two killed and four hundred and seventy wounded.—*Baedeker's "Greece."*

THE FAMOUS FIGURINES OF TANAGRA.

If from the heights of Parnes we turn our eyes towards the north, we see at its foot a very long and fairly broad depression running to the east towards the straits of Eubœa; it is the valley of the Vourienis, the Asopus of the ancients, a stream which possesses this peculiarity amongst others, that its channel only runs dry for a very small part of the year. In the center of this valley, at the confluence of the Vourienis and one of its affluents, lie the scanty remains of the ancient city of Tanagra, quite close to the modern village of Skimatari. . . . Life there, it seems, was easy and agreeable, the wine good, the people courteous, hospitable and charitable, the cock-fights famous throughout Greece; so that altogether Tanagra was an earthly paradise. In addition to this its women were beautiful, "the most comely and graceful in all Greece," says an ancient writer, "from their shape, their bearing, and the rhythm of their movements."

For a long time the peasants of the neighboring villages, when tilling their ground, had come across ancient tombs full of vases or statuettes; the name Skimatari (village of figurines) no doubt arose from this, but the objects themselves, found in small numbers, passed through so many hands before they reached a final resting-place that all precise indications of their origin were lost. It was not until 1870 that the explorations were pushed on more actively. A Greek from Corfu, Giorgios Anypantias, better known under his nickname of Barba-Jorgi (old George), was just at this time engaged in secretly exploring the burial-place of Thespiae; he heard a report of the discoveries which had been accidentally made at Tanagra, and established himself in the village, where, thanks to the experience he had had in work of this kind, he soon made the most splendid discoveries. Until his arrival the tombs explored had belonged almost exclusively to a very early period, and their contents were not very valuable; he was fortunate enough to find tombs of a later date, more richly provided, and containing objects which fetched a much higher price, so that in a short time he made a very handsome profit. Encouraged by his example, the peasants of the village left their farms and also began to excavate, so that the windows of the Athenian dealers in antiquities soon contained a large number of exceedingly lovely terracotta figurines. The prodigious success which these figures met with in Europe, and the rapid increase in price which followed in consequence, brought sudden riches to the people of Skimatari, and redoubled their zeal. All the land of the village was dug up and turned over in every direction, and as the Greek government made no effort to organize regular excavations, and the Archaeological Society of Athens did not condescend to take any interest in these delightful discoveries, the burial-ground of Tanagra was literally plundered by ignorant men whose chief anxiety was to make some lucrative finds. When at last the authorities bethought themselves that the excavations were unauthorized, and the Archaeological Society realized that the finest statuettes had been taken out of the country, it was too late. . . . The great anxiety of the ancients was to give their dead a strong and inviolable retreat in order to ensure their repose, and at the same time to protect from desecration the objects of value often placed in the tomb. It was for this purpose that they

endeavored to make the walls of the tomb indestructible and to close it as completely as possible, either by filling the grave with a thick layer of earth or by covering it with heavy slabs of stone forming a kind of lid. At the bottom of the grave the corpse was laid, with the head turned to the east or to the north—in this matter there was no unvarying rule—and all around it, mixed up with the bones and earth in the tomb, were objects of all kinds, buried with the corpse and forming its funeral equipment. There were objects which the dead had used in daily life,—strigils and mirrors, boxes for paints and perfumes, ornaments and children's toys; there were vessels, too, designed to hold their food and drink, dishes of earthenware and bronze, cups and platters, bottles and lamps; there were also coins, and lastly figurines of terracotta. . . .

Amongst the objects laid in the grave these statuettes of terra-cotta form by far the most interesting class. They constitute a little world by themselves of infinite variety, in which we find every style, every fashion, and every period; figurines of men and women, statuettes of divinities and spirits, as well as grotesque and indecent ones; jointed figures like puppets, and hollow figures with a stone inside like rattles; animals of every kind, statuettes of every degree of merit, rudimentary or exquisite, coarse or finished, all differing from one another according to their circumstances and their data. . . .

"The Tanagra statuettes vary considerably in size: the largest are as much as fifteen inches in height, while the smallest only measure between two and three inches; but the greater number reach a height of about eight inches when seated, or from five to seven when kneeling, and of eight to ten when standing. The appearance of all, however, is the same, and they are all made in the same way."

During the twenty years, in fact, that we have been acquainted with these Tanagra figurines, the question has often been put, What do these graceful and dainty little figures represent, with their piquant air, their gait now rapid and agile, now indolent and languishing, and their exquisitely graceful attire? And upon this difficult question there is discord in the camp of the archaeologists. On the one hand, M. Heuzey, a champion of delicate taste, undoubted learning and marvelous ingenuity, endeavors to show, with astonishing fertility of argument and remarkable skill, that these figurines so delicate and *spirituelles* have a religious and symbolic sense, and that under their mundane appearance are concealed the great and mysterious divinities of the lower world. On the other hand, a whole school of archaeologists, adopting a simpler and more ordinary explanation, seek for representations of daily life in these graceful statuettes, and will see nothing in them but genre subjects.

Another and not less difficult question arises if we inquire for what reason figurines were placed in the tombs, and in order to reach a solution it may be worth while briefly to recall the conceptions which the Greeks entertained of the life beyond the grave. For them, as for all the other people of antiquity, life did not come to an abrupt close at death, but in the tomb where the body was imprisoned an obscure existence was maintained with all the needs and pleasures and desires of humanity. Even at a later time, when the Greeks pictured to themselves all the souls of the dead assembled in Hades, a subterranean region vaster than the tomb, their only conception of this future life was as a repetition of life on earth. It was therefore the duty of the living to supply food to the dead, who continued to exist within the tomb; and this is the reason why wine and cakes and milk were placed upon the grave, and also why, on certain anniversaries, funeral

banquets were celebrated there, at which the shade of the dead man was present though invisible. It was also the duty of the living to see that in the solitude of the tomb the departed were surrounded by the objects they had cared for on earth, and therefore arms, gymnastic appliances, mirrors, needles, boxes of paints, and cases of perfumes were buried with them. They must not only be provided with necessaries, but with superfluities as well, they must take their friends and companions down with them into the other world in order to recommence their round of pleasures there; for this reason their horses and dogs were buried with them, and in early ages slaves and captive women were often sacrificed upon the grave, that they might go down into Hades to wait upon the departed, or to enliven his loneliness. In later times when manners became less barbarous, these cruel customs disappeared, and bloodless sacrifices, prayers and music offered at the grave took the place of these sanguinary rites; but still the idea remained that the solitude of the dead man must be enlivened, and the melancholy of

his shade dispelled. To cheer the departed in the depths of the tomb, and to protect him against the dangers of that mysterious journey, was the twofold desire by which the piety of the survivors was inspired. It was for this purpose that the Egyptians placed statuettes in the tomb, to answer the summons of the departed, to aid him in the cultivation of the celestial fields, to form a devoted escort around him, and to secure him immortality. The Assyrians, from a similar motive, placed in the graves figurines designed to avert the hostility of the chthonic powers, and this too is the object of the sepulchral idols found in ancient burial-grounds at Rhodes, which represented the guardian divinities of the tomb and afforded escort and society for the departed. This is also undoubtedly the reason why the cemeteries of Tanagra and of Myrina are full of terra-cotta statuettes; but this question is still keenly disputed according as we look to one or the other of these two dominant ideas—the wish to protect the dead, and the wish to provide them with company in the grave.—“Excursions in Greece.” Diehl.

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS.

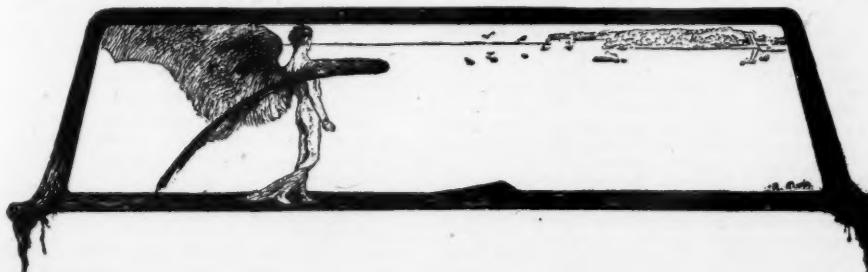
“THE RIVALRY OF NATIONS.”—APRIL.

1. Australasia, \$79,321,600; Africa, \$73,229,100; United States, \$71,053,400. 2. The total area of Siberia is 5,000,000 square miles; population, from five million to six million, half of which represents semi-nomadic tribes. 3. The length of the Trans-Siberian railway is 4,950 miles. 4. The island of Hong-kong was ceded to England in perpetuity in 1843. It is a British crown colony, administered by a governor with an executive and a legislative council. 5. The Merovingian dynasty was founded in 486 by the Merovingians, a Salian Frankish tribe, under Clovis; Charlemagne established the Carlovingian dynasty in 768. 6. Confucius, a celebrated Chinese philosopher, was born about 550 B. C. He was descended from an illustrious but impoverished family. He held various public offices, but devoted the last years of his life to the completion of his literary undertakings and to teaching. After his death his followers venerated his memory, and his teachings were accepted as almost divine. 7. The area of Japan (exclusive of the territory recently acquired by treaty from China) is 147,655 square miles; population (1893), 41,089,940. 8. Commodore M. C. Perry was a brother of Oliver H. Perry.

“A READING JOURNEY IN THE ORIENT.”—APRIL.

1. Smyrna, Rhodes, Colophon, Salamis (in Cyprus), Chios, Argos, and Athens contended for the honor of being Homer's birthplace. Of these, the best evidence connects him with Smyrna. 2. (This question was

given incorrectly in the April issue. It should have read, “What is the *story* of Dædalus?”) Dædalus was a famous Athenian artificer, who built the labyrinth as a home for the Minotaur by order of Minos, king of Crete. Dædalus afterward lost favor with Minos, and was imprisoned by him. Seeing no other way of escape, he made out of feathers wings for his son Icarus and himself, which he fastened on with wax. Then poising themselves in the air, they flew away. Icarus, however, in spite of his father's warnings, soared too near the sun, and its heat softened the waxen fastenings of his wings. Off they came, and the boy fell into the sea, which is named Icarian for him. Dædalus finally arrived in Sicily, where he built a temple to Apollo, and hung up his wings as an offering to the god. But Minos learned of his hiding-place, and followed him to Sicily with a large fleet, and Dædalus would surely have perished, had not one of the daughters of Cocalus disposed of Minos by scalding him to death while he was bathing. 3. The faithful swineherd of Ulysses, a character in the *Odyssey*. When Ulysses came home from the Trojan war in the guise of a beggar, Eumeus received him kindly and afterwards helped Ulysses and Telemachus in their battle with the suitors of Penelope. 4. A holy picture or mosaic—especially one representing Christ, the Virgin, or some saint or martyr—often richly adorned with jewels and commonly regarded as miraculous either in origin or in power. 5. The *Odyssey*, Book III. 6. Acts, xvi. : 11. “Therefore loosing from Troas, we came with a straight course to Samothracia, and the next day to Neapolis.”



TOPICS of the HOUR with CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

VIII. THE SEARCH FOR THE NORTH AND SOUTH POLES.

BY GILBERT H. GROSVENOR.

(Managing Editor, *National Geographic Magazine*.)

Abruzzi, Duke of. "Farthest North Eclipsed." (*National Geographic Magazine*, October, 1900.) A brief account of the expedition, led by the Italian prince, that gained the record for the farthest north. Andrée. "Letters from the Andrée Party." (*McClure's*, March, 1898.) Gives graphic description of the inception and completion of Andrée's bold plans for gaining the North Pole in a balloon.

Cook, F. A. Surgeon and anthropologist of the Belgian Antarctic Expedition. "Through the First Antarctic Night." (New York, Doubleday & McClure, 1900, \$3.) The popular record of the explorations of the south polar expedition of 1898-99, the first expedition to pass a winter within the Antarctic Circle. The appendix contains a summary of the scientific results. Chapters of the book appeared in *McClure's*, November, 1899 ("The Belgian Antarctic Expedition"), and *Scribner's*, December, 1899 ("Possibilities of Antarctic Exploration").

Fricker, Karl. "The Antarctic Regions." (New York, Macmillan Co., 1900, \$2. Translation.) A history of discovery in the far south from Cook, Wilkes, and Ross to the present time, with admirable chapters on the conformation of the surface and the geological structure, the climate, fauna and flora, etc., of south polar regions.

Greely, Gen. A. W. "Handbook of Arctic Discoveries." (Boston, Roberts Bros., 1896, \$1.) A compact history of arctic exploration, with an exhaustive bibliography. "Three Years of Arctic Service." (New York, Scribner's, 1894, new edition.) The story of the famous Greely expedition of 1881-84. Tells of the heroic explorations and terrible sufferings of the party, and gives a vivid portrayal of the perils of the search for the pole. "Race for the North Pole." (Munsey, June, 1899.) A discussion of the different routes projected for gaining the North Pole. General Greely advocates striking from Greenland rather than from Franz Josef Land. "Scope and Value of Arctic Explorations." (*National Geographic Magazine*, January, 1896.)

Jackson, F. G. "A Thousand Days in the Arctics." (New York, Harpers, 1899.) Especially interesting as the narrative of the man whose chance meeting with Nansen in Franz Josef Land saved the latter from destruction.

Markham, C. R. "Antarctic Exploration and its Importance." (Forum, February, 1898.) A statement of the necessity for south polar exploration by the leading authority on the subject, the president of the Royal Geographical Society.

Meyer, E. T. "The Ermak Icebreaking Ship." (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, June, 1899.) A description of a type of vessel that may prove an important factor in gaining the poles.

Nansen, Fridtjof. "Farthest North." (New York, Harpers, 1898, one volume edition.) Dr. Nansen is the originator of the plan of reaching the North Pole

by letting the ship be frozen in the ice, and then drifting with the ice to or near the pole. He is also the inventor of a type of vessel, which, instead of resisting ice-pressure, is lifted upon the ice by the pressure. This book gives the record of his explorations during 1893-1896 on the *Fram*, when he gained "farthest north." "Future Arctic Exploration." (*McClure's*, February, 1898.) Nansen believes that a vessel, like the *Fram*, a floating observatory, entering the ice from Bering Strait between 160-170 degrees west longitude would be carried across the sea much to the north of the *Fram's* route, and possibly across the pole itself.

Pearcy, R. E. "Northward over the Great Ice." (New York, Frederick A. Stokes Co., 2 vols., 1898.) A complete record of Peary's arctic work up to 1898. Deals more especially with Greenland, which Peary was the first to prove an island. "Outline of My Arctic Campaign." (*McClure's*, March, 1899.) Presents the plans of the campaign which Peary has been waging since the summer of 1898. Peary is now passing his third consecutive winter in the arctics, and is determined not to return till he has gained the pole.

Wellman, Walter. "Quest of the North Pole." (*Review of Reviews*, February, 1898.) The author advocates approaching the pole by sledding across Franz Josef Land, and then making "A Dash for the Pole" from the most northern land. "The Wellman Expedition." (*National Geographic Magazine*, December, 1899). Narrates the experiences of the expedition led by Wellman in accordance with the above plan, 1898-1899. "Where is Andrée?" (*McClure's*, March, 1898.) Conjectures as to the fate of Andrée.

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS.

Number One —

1. Reading: From "Three Years of Arctic Service," Greely (listed above).
2. Oration: Arctic Heroes.
3. Paper: (1) The Use of Stimulants in Polar Expeditions. (2) What Polar Expeditions have contributed to Science.
4. Debate: Resolved, That polar explorations do not pay.

Number Two —

1. Reading: (1) From "A Thousand Days in the Arctics," by Jackson (listed above). (2) From Nansen's "Farthest North" (listed above).
2. Oration: When the North Pole shall have been Discovered.
3. Paper: (1) The Necessity of South Polar Exploration. (2) Why continue the search for the North Pole?
4. Debate: Resolved, That Nansen's "drift" plan is the most tenable theory of arctic exploration which has been advanced.

HOW CHAUTAUQUA CIRCLES HAVE PROMOTED PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

Our circle pages this month are devoted entirely to reports showing how the circles have helped to establish or to foster public libraries in their towns or villages. There are many unwritten chapters in this part of the history of the C. L. S. C., and we hope in the future to present much interesting history of past achievements side by side with that which the circles are accomplishing today. The following reports, show in how many different ways the circles have had an influence upon the library movement. In addition to these reports, other interesting facts have come to our notice: the circle at Jarrettsville, Maryland, explain their remarkably excellent library, for so small a town, by the school law of Maryland, which requires a county to give ten dollars for a school library whenever the school itself shall raise ten dollars. The Chautauquans and others of Jarrettsville have made the most of this opportunity, and by entertainments of various kinds have secured many appropriations of ten dollars from the county funds. At Havana, Illinois, the law provided for the maintenance of a public library, but it was a committee from the Chautauqua circle that reminded the town officials of the fact, and brought about public agitation and additional funds. Mr. Carnegie has promised a building, and the library which was opened two years ago in a room in the town hall will soon have a home of its own.

At Ridgefarm, Illinois, the circle have made a brave beginning in library work by collecting some sixty excellent books which have been put into circulation, though this library has not yet even a reading room. At Cazenovia, New York, the public library is housed in a former residence the use of which is given by a public-spirited citizen, Mr. Hubbard. The library is sustained by private subscriptions and entertainments. The "Art Class" conducted by Miss Dows, and engaged in the study of Chautauqua courses for some fifteen years past, has recently given two entertainments in aid of the library funds—one a "mummy tea" in honor of an Egyptian mummy presented to the library, and the other an exhibition of needlework, the result of the two undertakings being a donation of one hundred and thirty dollars' worth of books.

SUMMERVILLE, SOUTH CAROLINA.

The Timrod Circle has celebrated its fourth and best year by extending its work and carrying its influence beyond the limits of the Chautauqua class. The great

lack in our town was a circulating library. There had been in previous years several attempts to supply this need, but all efforts had failed, leaving as a total result only two hundred books and a large amount of discouragement. The first of these the Timrod Circle seized upon—the last it would not consider—and went to work to see what twenty-three Chautauquans could do towards raising popular interest and the necessary funds.

Subscriptions at one dollar a year and the never-failing bazaar did wonders towards accomplishing both of these ends, and soon we were ordering new books and arranging the rooms we had rented for our library. Here we met with assistance from outside our circle. One generous friend promised us the magazines for each month, and made us valuable contributions in the way of furniture. Others helped with the furnishings, and many donated books.

After constant but successful work, we opened our library early in January with an afternoon tea, and many subscribers collected to approve our enterprise and drink to its success.

Since that time we have met only with encouragement. Every week new subscribers are added to our roll, and "The Timrod Library" is becoming of greater public interest. Lately we have received an evidence of this interest in a contribution from a few young men of Summerville. They gave an entertainment for the benefit of the library, at which they raised an amount sufficient to purchase a set of the "Encyclopaedia Britannica." This we appreciate doubly as it is the first donation of money that we have received.

Other members of the C. L. S. C. may be interested in hearing how we manage the library. It is controlled entirely by the members of the Timrod Circle, but any one may become a subscriber by paying the annual fee. The library is open three times a week, and for three hours at a time. On each occasion two members of the circle are in charge. We take turns in acting as librarians, and all of us find it a genuine pleasure. The rules governing the borrowing of books, etc., are the same as those maintained in other libraries, and they are rigidly enforced as in any large public library.

We do not feel that we have yet attained our goal. We hope the day is near at hand when we may employ a regular librarian, and open the library every day; and to some of the more optimistic even a new library building is not beyond the pale of ambition. But all of this we are content to let come by degrees, granting that the degrees are marked by work as well as by time, and in the meanwhile we shall feel that we have met with additional success if our efforts inspire a similar exertion in other branches of the C. L. S. C.

CHARLOTTE, VERMONT.

Two views of the library at Charlotte, Vermont, will be found in this number of the C. L. S. C. Round Table, and for these, as well as for the entertaining account of the library enterprise, we are indebted to the secretary of the C. L. S. C., Miss Emma Leavenworth. The circle has a membership of eleven, three of whom are graduates, and we are glad to know that their secretary, who is a member of the class of 1901, expects to represent them at Chautauqua this summer:

In the summer of 1899 some of the young women of our community conceived the idea of giving a play, the proceeds of which should be used to start a public library. A play entitled "Breezy Point" was selected, and the parts assigned to thirteen of our number. Having no hall for entertainments, we were able to procure the use of the Methodist Episcopal church, which is not used for religious services. From the time we commenced rehearsing great interest was manifested in the play and its object. Four of the parts were taken by members of the C. L. S. C. We presented the play in August, as we have many campers and visitors during the summer months on the shore of our beautiful Lake Champlain. "Breezy Point" was so much of a success that we were asked to repeat it, which we did. We also gave it in one of the adjoining towns, and cleared about one hundred dollars. A resident of Chicago who has spent several summers here interested herself in our plans and gave us twenty-five dollars. Our town clerk, whose daughter was one of the players, kindly consented to let us put shelves in his office for our books. His office being in his own home, his daughter acts as librarian free of charge.

The thirteen young women who gave the play formed themselves into the "Breezy Point Library Association." During the winter of 1899-1900 we gave "Old Maids' Convention," and last summer had a library social, and another play, "A Fighting Chance." So we have added to our number of books until, with some donations, we have three hundred volumes. We are told that our choice of books has been excellent, and the library is well patronized and thoroughly appreciated.

I would say that this has been done in a country town of fourteen hundred inhabitants, with no village of any size. I wish this might encourage some one similarly situated to "go and do likewise."

EMMA LEAVENWORTH.

BRADFORD, VERMONT.

That the public library of Bradford, Vermont, is a credit to the enterprising citizens who made it a possibility is evident both from the excellent report furnished by Mrs. M. L. Tebbets and from the photograph which we reproduce in the Round Table. The president of the circle, Mrs. Prichard, says of the enterprise: "While the Chautauqua Circle were not the original promoters of the public library (the Socratic Circle was formed in 1880), it soon came under their supervision, and was very efficiently managed by them for several years. The interest was increased, the desire for a better class of reading stimulated, and the best books selected — among them the books for the required Chautauqua readings. I feel more and more that the Chautauqua readings make us more efficient in the home, in the church, and in society, and I wish by my influence to pass it on."

The town of Bradford, Vermont, has a flourishing public library of about three thousand volumes and a handsome, commodious library building. The building was the gift of the late John L. Woods of Cleveland, Ohio, and was dedicated to "sound learning and popular education," July 4, 1895. Mr. Woods was born in an adjoining town and has many relatives living in

Bradford. In the words of the dedicatory address, "This gift was suggested and its usefulness made possible by the library work begun and carried on by the unselfish and unaided efforts of the women of Bradford." This beginning was made in 1874 by two enterprising public-spirited women who obtained subscriptions of one dollar each from sixty-three women for the purchase of books for a library. These subscribers adopted regulations for their library association, continuing to raise money by subscriptions, entertainments, and lectures, when, in 1879, through the efforts of Mrs. Roswell Farnham, one of the earliest Chautauqua students and a very enthusiastic member of the Socratic C. L. S. C., it received a gift of one thousand dollars from D. H. Piersons of Chicago, a native of Bradford, to be invested and the income spent in the purchase of books. The next year they adopted a constitution and by-laws which provided for the necessary officers. A liberal share of the offices has been bestowed upon members of the Chautauqua Circle, and for seven or eight years the management of the library was in their hands.

CELINA, OHIO.

As will be seen from the following report, the Celina library is due to the enterprise of the Shakespeare Club and not of a Chautauqua circle, but as the president of the circle is a graduate of the C. L. S. C. Class of 1900, and had been a Chautauquan two years before the club under her leadership agitated the question of a library, we may properly include the report as one which shows one aspect of Chautauqua's share in promoting the library movement:

During the summer of 1898 Mr. E. M. Ashley of Denver, Colorado, wrote the president of the Shakespeare Club of Celina that he would donate us his forty volumes of Bancroft's histories if we would take these for a nucleus around which to gather a public library. When the summer vacation had ended and our regular meetings began, the president presented the matter, and all joined enthusiastically in the project. We first interested the public in our work by holding a library reception and discussing ways and means for what then seemed a great undertaking, and we found we had many sympathizers. But we had no definite plan for raising money, until a representative of the Interstate Lecture Bureau of Cincinnati met with the club one evening and suggested our giving a lecture course. We hesitated and considered, but finally our pledge and signatures were given for two hundred dollars, and we were to have five attractions. We made a thorough canvass of the town and sold the season tickets for one dollar. We also cleared twenty dollars by our advertising covers, in which we placed the circulars each time for distribution through the town.

This winter was filled with many trying and exciting as well as pleasant experiences. Our opera house was then being remodeled, and we had to hold the first three numbers in the court house, and therefore had no revenue from reserved seats. It was novel to see fifteen of the young women of the community posting lithographs, selling tickets at the window, and ushering the audience to their seats, as we did all our own work. But our only really unpleasant experience was with a drayman who damaged a piano for us, disobeyed orders, and then entered suit against us because we refused to pay his exorbitant price for moving the piano. This

was, however, agreeably settled on his part, and we avoided him in the future. At the close of the course we cleared sixty dollars and were very well satisfied, as this had been the best financial success of any course ever given in Celina.

We then gave a book social and received a number of books and a snug little sum of money; this we followed by an ice cream supper in the summer. When fall came, the History Club gave us thirty-five dollars' worth of beautiful and valuable books; and with our money on hand we were able to purchase bookcases and to secure books to the number of seven hundred volumes, including those that were donated by friends and congressmen.

Our greatest difficulty was in securing a room, but we were finally given the use of the township room in the city building, with the understanding that any one in the township could enjoy the privileges of the library; and on October 27, 1899, we opened the "Shakespeare Public Library." The library is open once a week and two of the club members act as librarians each Saturday. We charge one dollar a year for the use of the books, and are adding new volumes continually. We now have over a thousand, and will soon add a large number.

Last winter, 1899-1900, we gave a second lecture course, and continued our work in the same way as the former year, that year realizing one hundred dollars and paying two hundred and fifty for our attractions. At the close of our club year we gave a reception for the benefit of the library fund, and were again encouraged by the large attendance and liberal offerings of those present.

This winter, 1900-01, is our third year, and we are assured of one hundred and sixty dollars profit after paying three hundred and sixty dollars for our course. Each year we have been able to secure better attractions, and those of the past winter especially have met with the hearty approval of the public.

Last fall we were given by Mrs. O. A. Paul a beautiful bookcase containing two hundred and thirty volumes, among them books that could not be replaced for large amounts.

Our enrolment of members is increasing weekly, and many of those who at first considered it a passing fancy have now added their names to our list of subscribers. The work in its various departments has become a pleasure to the club members, now twenty in number, and we are encouraged to think Celina will soon be in possession of a free library and reading room open at all times to the public.

GRACE L. RILEY,
C. L. S. C., 1900.

WAPPING, CONNECTICUT.

The Hawthorne Chautauqua Circle in the little hamlet of Wapping, town of South Windsor, Connecticut, is not without its influence. The graduates of the classes of '96 and '98 formed themselves into a Society of the Hall in the Grove, and were reinforced later by other graduates.

The president of Hawthorne Circle, Henry W. Sadd, a progressive man, true to the object of the society, conceived the idea of a permanent public library. Favoring this idea was an offer from the state to appropriate annually one hundred dollars to each town that would raise a like sum for the purpose of establishing a free library.

A meeting of the citizens of South Windsor was called to consider the matter. The timorous saw obstacles and bugbears; the hopeful saw necessities and advantages. When the subject, duly announced, was presented at a regularly called town meeting it was laid on the table. But nothing could daunt our worthy presi-

dent, who, with kindred spirits, persistently brought up the subject at subsequent town meetings. At the fourth meeting it was voted down, but at the fifth meeting without a dissenting voice the town voted to appropriate one hundred dollars annually, provided both sections of the town could be benefited. Consequently two branches are established under the care of a board of directors. The library was first opened January 24, 1899. The books now number one thousand volumes.

Each section of the town hires a room where its books are kept, and at each a librarian without salary gives certain hours two days in the week when books can be drawn. During the year ending September 1, 1900, the number of books drawn was 3,829. We believe this result is largely due to the influence of Chautauqua.

WALTER R. GREEN, for the Circle.

TYLER, TEXAS.

Mrs. Potter's delightfully graphic account of library affairs in Tyler, Texas, shows how an enterprise can be made to succeed when once it takes full possession of its promoters. Evidently the Tyler library is classed among the "Lares" and "Penates" of the four federated clubs, and, like other household gods, receives their devotion early and late. We note with peculiar interest that the oldest club of the four was a Chautauqua circle organized in 1886 and following Chautauqua courses for twelve years. Even now in its excursions into other fields, it continues to report to its *alma mater* and to invite suggestions, and was represented at Chautauqua last summer.

We have had in Tyler for about twelve years a town federation of women's literary clubs. This union existed simply for the purpose of bringing the clubs together once or twice a year in a social way. During the year 1898, when there were five federated clubs averaging twelve members each, we entertained the state federation. Gaining renewed inspiration from this meeting, we decided at the annual May meeting of our town federation that we would begin a town library, however small; that this would be our *one* work. Consequently, as our dues were one dollar each and already paid in, the menu committee served tea and wafers and the money usually spent on a delicious lunch was voted to our infant project. Still this was only about sixty dollars. You well know that women's clubs move slowly, so it was not until the first of April, 1899, that the library was really established. By giving a book social, we found we had on hand \$133 and 225 books to start with. We purchased home-made shelves of the Y. M. C. A. for \$2.75 and set up our collection in the ground floor office of a young lawyer, who agreed in a public-spirited fashion to act as librarian for five dollars a month, promising to attend to patrons two afternoons in the week. In April, 1900, one year, we had realized by entertainments \$800.23. The sale of tickets and fines brought the amount up to \$900; the books had increased to 550.

After the first seven months our librarian's good nature was so imposed upon at all hours that we raised his salary to ten dollars. We propose to raise it to fifteen dollars on April 1, 1901, for he has been so efficient and accommodating. From April, 1899, to April, 1900, 4,484 books were checked out. This

shows fourteen books a day going out of our "little hole in the wall."

This year we have not realized quite so much from our entertainments; so far \$500, and only one month left. One large entertainment this month has been abandoned on account of a disastrous fire.

We have now one thousand volumes. About ten tickets a month are sold (one dollar apiece). The books are insured. We have thirty units of the Wernicke book casing, and are so proud of them! We find the young people read about as much as do the older ones. The book most often called for has been "Red Rock." One "new" book has been laid in the stove, and the library board are now reading some others to see if they are only fit for kindling purposes. We have been compelled to buy the better class of novels largely; still we have gotten some good histories and classics to be used as collateral study in our clubs. Since we have as yet no reading room, reference books are dead on our shelves, and we have only those that have been given us.

We have a library board composed of two members from each federated club, elected by the club. There are now four clubs in the federation,—the "Quid Nunca," "The First Literary Club" (for twelve years a Chautauqua circle and the oldest club in the town), the "Sherwood" (musical and literary), and the "Bachelor Maids." Six individuals of the "Athenian Club" are federated with us, but not the entire club.

We have had all sorts of entertainments. First we rented chairs, and then sublet them at the weekly baseball matches,—ten cents a chair in addition to gate fee. One member was appointed to do the renting each week and turn over the funds. About \$5 a week was secured during the summer of 1899 in this way. Twenty dollars were received from an endless chain; \$25 from a masked ball to which invitations were issued at fifty cents each. "A Milk Maids' Convention," a burlesque of women's clubs, given at the opera house brought us \$200; an afternoon tea \$10; a chafing dish party \$30; William J. Bryan's lecture \$222; a reading by Miss McCamish \$56.

We draw lots as to the months the different clubs may have: each club striving to give two entertainments a year. The "Sherwood" and "Bachelor Maids" are now getting up together an entertainment of music, living pictures, and gymnastic drills.

Our little catalogue for the first year, 500 copies, was paid for by the advertising given by the business men. We have a white population of 5,000 and a negro population of 2,500 in Tyler. Our town is so deeply in debt that we can hope for nothing from it. Without any prospects of phenomenal good fortune, we are full of hope, and have never been discouraged.

COLUMBUS, INDIANA.

Some seven or eight years ago the common council of the city of Columbus, Indiana, adopted an ordinance levying a tax of about one thousand dollars per annum to be used to found and support a public library, this fund to accumulate from year to year, no time limit being specified, said fund being in the hands of the city school board as trustees. By the spring of 1899 this fund amounted to something over five thousand dollars, and the opening of a library began to be discussed. Strange as it may seem, there was some powerful opposition to the library, some people contending that we should wait until our fund amounted to twelve or fifteen thousand dollars, others that the city council should appropriate the funds to be used in building a city park or some other public institution. Of course the people of literary inclination put forth their best efforts for a public library, and with their

petitions, resolutions, and untiring efforts succeeded in winning the day. In the van of the workers was the Winona Reading Circle (now the Winona Chautauqua Circle). Members of the circle attended a meeting of the school board, and made their influence felt in behalf of the library. As the agitation took place in the summer when the circle was disbanded, no action was taken as a circle, but through the influence of its members, the Orinoco Literary Society, a very strong organization, was induced to pass resolutions commending the public library plan. These were sent to the school board, published in the papers, and followed by similar resolutions from other literary societies. The library was opened to the public in August, 1899, and today we have one of the best selected and conducted libraries in the state of Indiana. No doubt there are many larger ones, but I have no fear in saying that there is none that gives more profit and pleasure or is better patronized than the one at Columbus. We are adding books each year to the amount of one thousand or fifteen hundred dollars, while the benefits are being felt in the growing interest in literature, education, and culture. It is a godsend to the people who are unable to purchase books or own a library.

WALTER V. WALTMAN,
Secretary Winona Chautauqua Circle.

ANDOVER, NEW YORK.

The president of the Hawthorne C. L. S. C., Mrs. A. B. Richardson, contributes the following account of the establishing of a library at Andover, New York. To appreciate the value of this work it must be borne in mind that the population of village and township combined is only a little over two thousand. The results achieved are due to hard work and persistent devotion. Our correspondent adds, "The women have learned to do all the work involved so as to do away with the services of a paid librarian and save that amount of money for the library; but the result has been very satisfactory."

A cooperative library association was organized at Andover, New York, in the spring of 1896. A deep interest was shown at first, but as no books were added the following year, and only a few of the magazines were renewed, the people seemed to lose all interest in drawing from the library. Consequently a notice was published in the local paper calling for a meeting of the members of the association. At this meeting a resolution was unanimously adopted that "the books, etc., be given to the Lucy Stone Club and the Hawthorne Club (C. L. S. C.), with the understanding that if the plan for a free library does not succeed, the books, etc., be given to the school."

In November, 1898, a joint meeting of the clubs was called, and the members listened to a plan used very successfully by an adjoining town in starting a free library. With the gift of the cooperative library as a nucleus, the women at once made a thorough canvass of the town, resulting in the gift of books, magazines, and money, as well as the use of a building (conditionally), fuel, heat, and lights for two years. From time to time entertainments were given, and the money added to the library fund. It was not until September, 1899, that the state inspector of libraries visited the town and took an inventory of library stock. He

(Continued on page 210.)

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL AND HYGIENIC INFLUENCE OF THE BICYCLE.

(FROM A LECTURE DELIVERED AT CHAUTAUQUA, N. Y.)



There are confidently affirmed to be between ten and eleven millions of wheels in use in the United States. The army uses them, and the armies of other civilized nations use them. They are employed in Africa to distribute tracts, and one who goes to Jerusalem will see Arabs, Jews, and Gentiles riding upon them.

Man has made great use of wheels. They are referred to in the sacred Scriptures symbolically; and there are "wheels within wheels" that have become the symbol of machinations—political and ecclesiastical. But the wheel, of which you may speak with an emphasis and the definite article, is unquestionably the bicycle.

The bicycle is the product of psychology. It was thought out by a man before he made it. All its machinery is an application of mental operations to the established laws of physics, and to be utilized it must be mastered and guided by a mind. I am well aware that there are monkeys exhibited that ride bicycles; but they are taught by minds. No monkey ever spontaneously mastered the bicycle. A human being explained it, as far as the monkey intellect could comprehend it, and when that failed patiently moved his arms and legs until the monkey availed himself of his hereditary power of balancing.

As respects methods of steering there are three: A man can steer by working one pedal stronger than the other; he can steer by the handle bars; and he can steer by swaying the body. Now all this proceeds, so far as an adult is concerned—for I shall have to distinguish between adults and children—from psychological operations. This appears when we consider the influence of self-consciousness in the presence of others, in attempting to mount. I am ashamed when I think of those in whose presence I could not mount. Even the man that picked up rags in the street, the newsboy, the Italian bootblack, could so abash me, in the early stages of my apprenticeship to this machine, that it was impossible for me to get on. Is not that psychological? My body cannot be abashed, it is my mental and moral state. But after I had progressed to a certain point, I went out riding with some young girls. They were, perhaps, between fourteen and sixteen. I had then learned to mount on level ground, but when fatigued could not easily accomplish it. We rode what was a long distance for me, but not for them, in a hilly region, and I was obliged to dismount a number of times. Now, if I were alone in my fatigued state, I could not mount; but if either of those girls came back to see what was the matter with me, and why I did not keep up, I instantly mounted and

rode off in fine style. Here you see psychology operating through pride in a reverse direction. I found this to be the case on four subsequent occasions, when I called the girls back for no other purpose than to be obliged to maintain my dignity in their presence.

Here let me point out why it is so difficult to learn to mount. It is the paralysis of fear lest a person should take a fall. It would not be so bad if a man fell on the ground. Mother Earth, when I have fallen, has generally received me very tenderly. But many persons are terribly afraid of their clothes becoming entangled when they fall. The person is paralyzed, and it is a fact that a paralyzed person can do nothing. When you are afraid you cannot mount, you *cannot* mount; and if you are afraid you do not know your speech or your music, you cannot deliver your speech or execute your music. That is psychology.

How is the fact that beginners run into things to be explained, except upon psychological grounds? The beginner is possessed with that thing and his body is not trained to make an involuntary effort to get away from it. It has made such an impression upon his mind that it has taken control of his sub-conscious movements. He cannot help himself. He goes straight toward that thing by a psychological operation.

The first principle of learning to ride a bicycle, as applied to adults, is that everything must be done by mental operation. But why do children learn so easily? Because they are not at all afraid. They do not stop to consider a bump, or that it will hurt them if they fall. But with regard to adults it is different—everything must proceed psychologically. There is a great difference between a bicycle and a horse. You cannot teach a bicycle anything, and you cannot accustom it to anything; you cannot punish it, and you cannot coax it.

Perfection is attained when the bicycle responds to the slightest wish. Then the wheel is an interpreter of a man's mind. If he is abstracted, irritable, or weary, the wheel acts in unison. One rides into liberty on a bicycle—as an orator talks himself, or a soldier fights himself, into liberty. A number of times when I was too languid to begin a walk, I have mounted the wheel and gone out. It was tiresome until I had ridden half a mile, but afterward it became so easy that before I knew it I had gone far enough to make a ten or twelve mile ride before reaching home. So much for the psychology of the bicycle.

In hygiene there are, as in all sciences, certain first principles. Exercise is beneficial, hurtful, or indifferent. Everything may be carried to excess. Any exercise that symmetrically or alternately employs the whole body—unless carried to great excess, or affect-

ing some organic weakness or displacement—will be followed only by healthful fatigue and symmetrical development. When, however, it does not exercise the whole body symmetrically, if carried to even light excess it may distort or produce disease. Hence it is, that some trades make the men that follow them round-shouldered. They cannot avoid it. Some kinds of business make men narrow chested, and others develop one part at the expense of the other. That famous rower, Hanlon, had most powerful arms but comparatively feeble legs. All exercises are dangerous in proportion as they develop one part of the body at the expense of another.

Exercise on the bicycle in the open air must be beneficial when exercise is desirable. The burden of proof is on him who denies it. He has to show, either that the person has otherwise too much exercise, or as much exercise as he should have; or that he has some displacement, or peculiarity of organization, or acute or chronic malady, that makes the bicycle unsuited to him, or makes it unhealthful if he attempts to use it, although another exercise might benefit him.

There is no physiological reason why women who are well and strong should not ride the bicycle. All those physicians who say otherwise are contradicted by the wisest physicians on both sides of the Atlantic. Both the *British Medical Weekly* and the *Lancet* have argued at great length, that if there be any physiological reason why either sex should not ride the bicycle, it is not the case with women; and they all agree that no bicycle riding, under any circumstances, can be worse for women than the old-fashioned, arbitrary, side-saddle arrangement. The founder of the Danville Sanitarium would not allow any of his patients to ride horseback, unless they would ride the way the bicyclist now rides, without distinction of sex. The well have only need to do two things when they ride: to sit erect, otherwise they will get contracted chest; also such bicyclist should take care, on non-bicycling days in the winter, to exercise the arms and back. Any great professional will tell you that the strength of his arms and back assist him in riding.

Now some cautions to sedentary persons. Be careful not to overdo. Beware of hills. Never ride a hill, or walk a hill, that you cannot ride or walk with your mouth shut. That is a pretty safe rule, but not a perfect one. Before I was in full training for the wheel, I rode some high hills with my mouth shut and for weeks I had indications that I had overdone.

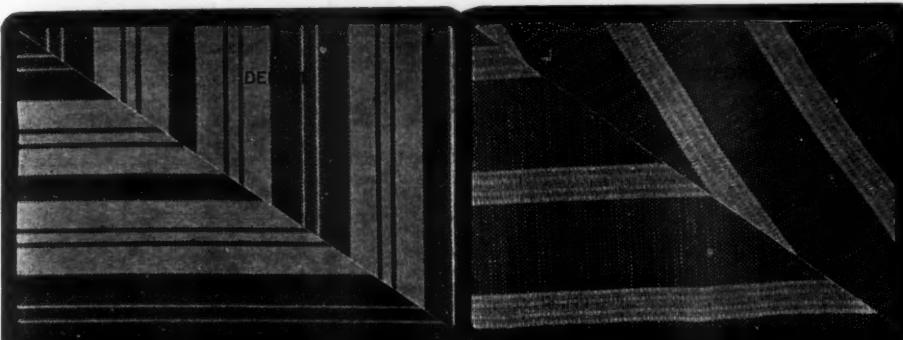
Most evils result from absurdities, such as parents allowing their children to ride too much, or beginners to ride as much as persons who have been riding for a year, even if they are not half as strong as they are. No one should ever attempt to regulate his speed by that of another. It is a matter of temperament and a matter of judgment. To obtain the best results, a man should ride his own wheel and have it more or less suited to himself. There are many questions about

weight; but if you undertake to push a wheel up a hill you will see that it takes comparatively no effort at all, and I do not believe it makes much difference whether a wheel weighs eighteen pounds or twenty-six pounds. One of the very best methods of exercise is to ride your wheel on an all-day journey, and push it up every hill. That gives you relief and a new exercise of muscles. I should feel perfectly competent to ride fifty miles tomorrow, provided I did that; but should I sit on the wheel all the time, I should do as much as I ought to do in twenty miles on an ordinary road. As to a cyclometer, a person who uses that, and is a slave to it, becomes absolutely hypnotized by it, like those simpletons who cannot see a slot machine twenty times a day without putting in a cent twenty times a day.

They find fault with racers and scorchers for bending down at right angles. I was caught going against the wind one day, when I was beginning, and could not go on level ground, and it suddenly occurred to me, why do these men whose object is to make speed bend down so. I thought perhaps they might do it to prevent the wind pushing them back and stopping them. So I bent down, and was able to go ahead against a wind that was blowing about twelve miles an hour. The scorcher, if he purposes to break records, bends down. As to coasting, the man who will coast on an unknown hill, or an unknown road that he has not more or less familiarity with, takes his life in his hands. The League of American Wheelmen practically says the same thing, for they have put up over the country, in many places, "Don't coast here unless you know the road."

In exercise, accidents of course are always possible, both from external and internal causes. Riding a horse is more or less dangerous, in the ratio of the number of horses and vehicles used in the place where the ride is taken. Even walking is dangerous under certain conditions and in a crowded thoroughfare. It is impossible to entirely eliminate the element of danger from any form of out-door and healthful exercise; but accidents where the rider loses his head, or cannot control his machine, should not be charged to the bicycle. With a good wheel, and a competent and cautious rider, the liability to accident is not great. There is no reason why middle aged men, and even those who have passed middle age, should not take to cycling, keeping in mind of course a frank recognition of the limitations which age imposes. Great speed, long rides, and hill-climbing put a strain upon the constitution and naturally find out the weak places—the parts of the system that are aging faster than others.

The bicycle develops courage, and courage is a moral quality. It develops the power of self-determination which is akin to a moral quality. The bicycle prevents irritability—nine-tenths of the irritability comes from indigestion and want of exercise. It helps to overcome low spirits generally. The bicycle is a great and marvelous machine, and will remain with us while the world lasts.



WHO'S AFRAID'

to use PEARLINE for colored wash-fabrics, fine gingham, etc., after the test-results shown above and below? In this test

We took risk 1440 times

as great as that of an ordinary PEARLINE wash, where the contact period is 20 minutes and the quantity of PEARLINE used only 1-12 of that used in our test

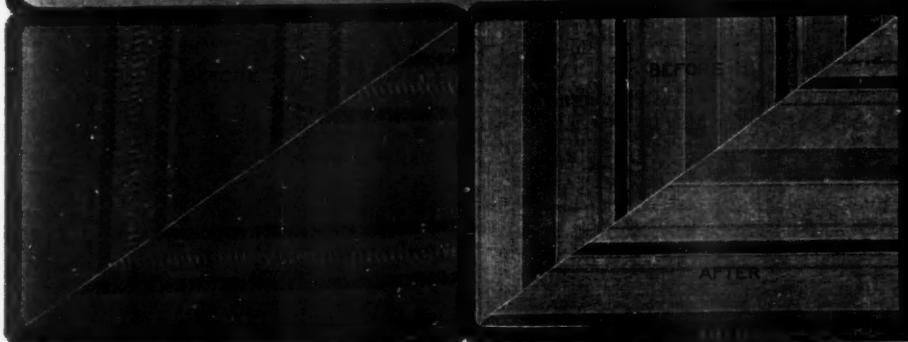
THE TEST

The pieces marked "after" were cut from the same goods as those marked "before," and were then soaked for 40 hours in a solution of PEARLINE and water, almost hot to begin with and 12 times as strong in PEARLINE as the suds prescribed in PEARLINE directions. Colors were Red, Pink, Green, Yellow and Blue.

THE RESULT

Both pieces of each pattern were photographed side by side. It would take an expert to detect any loss or deterioration of color or fabric. The ever truthful camera would reveal any loss or injury; however, if any doubt remain, try some scraps of goods for yourself. PEARLINE brightens some faded colors.

Test was made on celebrated "Whytlaw's Wash Fabrics."



HOW CHAUTAUQUA CIRCLES HAVE PROMOTED
PUBLIC LIBRARIES.—(Continued.)

valued it, and allowed the library one-half the sum from the state, at the same time giving valuable suggestions about organizing. Following this, trustees were elected, a constitution adopted, and a librarian was engaged to catalogue the books. In October, 1899, the "Free Library and Reading-Room" was opened to the public. The library is opened three times a week for loaning books, and on Sunday afternoons and evenings for a reading room, the women giving their services.

At the last election in March two hundred dollars were given by the town. At present the library has 784 books, eight periodicals, and orders for new books at the publishers, and money in the treasury.

ADA S. RICHARDSON,
President of the Hawthorne C. L. S. C.

CANTON, PENNSYLVANIA.

The public library of Canton was opened to the public on New Year's day, 1900, with about one thousand volumes. When subscriptions were asked for, the Chautauqua circle decided that they would like to do something for the library. So a committee was appointed to see the members, and they succeeded in raising fifty dollars. This year they made up their minds that a circle of twenty members ought to pay ten dollars to help support the library. And this is only the second year of the venture. The books are kept in the borough building. We have a cozy room right in the center of the town, and this room is open to the public each Wednesday and Saturday afternoon and evening. The idea of the library and the efforts put forth are due very largely to Rev. W. D. Crockett, pastor of the Presbyterian Church. Last New Year's when the library was just a year old, a reception was held, and each brought a book or money enough to buy one.

The clipping which accompanied the above report by Mrs. C. E. Black, secretary of the Alpha Kappa C. L. S. C., shows that the New Year's reception resulted in the addition of five hundred books. The library is now about to publish a new catalogue, and has set its mark at five hundred more books before the end of the year.

CLEVELAND, TENNESSEE.

Although the library of Cleveland, Tennessee, was not organized by Chautauqua students, yet as the woman's club which is responsible for it has recently become a Chautauqua reading circle, it is fitting that this most stimulating report should find a place in our Round Table. Miss Aiken spent last summer at Chautauqua, and as she says, "came home such an enthusiastic Chautauquan that I acted as organizer of the work here. We are thoroughly delighted with the course, and find it very beneficial."

We are glad to give you a short history of our library movement, in the hope that it may inspire other small communities to "go and do likewise," believing that nothing is impossible to him who hopes and perseveres. Lord Shaftesbury said, "Let no man despair in a good cause. Let him persevere, persevere, PERSEVERE, and God will raise him up friends and helpers."

In 1895 our woman's club was organized under the name of the Magazine Club, the object being mutual help and improvement. For a while this met our demands; but soon a longing for something higher and better took possession of us. We felt that the true end of club life was not a selfish one, but to help others. With this longing came the thought of establishing a public library, and though the realization of the thought seemed a far-away dream, we began to devise ways and means to make it a reality. An article in the *Ladies' Home Journal* on the subject was read at one of our meetings, creating an enthusiasm that has not since abated.

Our first effort to bring the matter before the public was a book reception. This was held in our club rooms; an appropriate literary program was rendered, and light refreshments were served. Each guest was requested to bring a book for the library; and when we found that more than one hundred volumes had been contributed, we were much encouraged to go forward with the work. From that day our library has been no idle dream, but a reality that has been of great benefit to our community.

We have found other ways of adding to our library fund. We have had entertainments both by home and foreign talent. Then by subscription and donation the fund has been increased. Some of our great-hearted citizens, appreciating our efforts in the work, have voluntarily contributed to its support. By these simple means, "here a little and there a little," our library has increased to more than five hundred volumes.

We use the rooms formerly occupied by the Y. M. C. A., having no building of our own. This building, which is well-lighted and comfortable, is rented by the club and is a favorite resort for the book-loving people of our town.

The library is entirely under the supervision of the Woman's Club. A committee with the first vice-president as chairman is appointed to look after its interests. It is the duty of this committee to buy all books, examine books presented, and to see that the library is kept open regularly. These women have the library interests at heart, and to them is due much of its success. We are not yet able to employ a regular librarian, but the members of the club voluntarily give their services, keeping it open from four to eight o'clock every Saturday.

We are in communication with Mr. Carnegie concerning a contribution for our library, and if we can create sufficient interest in the town, we hope soon to have our library on a permanent foundation, with a building all our own.

While our library is small, we feel that our work has not been in vain. The interest in reading the books is very great. Many who have not access to good literature are our constant visitors. It has placed within their reach the best literature, and stimulates them to read only the best.

RUTH AIKEN.

LIVINGSTON, MONTANA.

The Yellowstone Club, one of the oldest in Montana, was organized in 1892 for the study of the Chautauqua Course in Sociology. This course was one of the Chautauqua series of "Read Lectures," and was prepared by Professor Small of the University of Chicago. The following year the club entered the regular C. L. S. C. course, and carried on its work under Chautauqua auspices until 1899. The following interesting account of its public-spirited work for Livingston comes to

van Houten's Cocoa



Refresh the Visitor with Van Houten's Cocoa.

It is the growing custom to offer a chance visitor a cup of Van Houten's Cocoa to drink. And why? Because it is refreshing to the exhausted, soothing to the nervous, stimulating to the tired, strengthening to the weak, and welcome alike to rich and poor, both old and young! It aids conversation by revivifying the flagging energies, tickles the palate by its delicious flavour, and entices by its fragrant aroma. It contains no added matter, such as starch or arrow-root, being cocoa, and nothing but cocoa! Cheap, because a little goes a long way, and rapidly made ready.

Guaranteed non-bilious, the superabundance of natural fat being reduced by Van Houten's Special (patented) process.

Don't forget to order it from the Grocery Store next time!

us through the press too late to secure a personal report from the club itself, which, however, we shall hope to have later. The clipping is taken from the *Butte News*:

Recently the ladies who compose the membership of the club began a new departure in the work they have in hand. They decided that the city of Livingston needed a public library, and it was determined to supply this need by a well-directed effort of the club organization. Accordingly the members contributed what books they could spare from their private libraries, and then made a complete canvass of the city, soliciting books for the library from every citizen who had a collection of books. In this way they were able to complete a good-sized list of interesting books for the library, and will provide the collection of books with suitable quarters, and the services of one of the club

members will be donated as librarian until the city government comes to the aid of the club and shares the burdens of the library project with the enterprising women of the city.

Livingston is in that stage of its growth when its population is hardly large enough to support a free public library and to maintain a librarian upon a salary, so the efforts of the club women will be greatly appreciated. There are a great many men in the city who are employed in the shops of the Northern Pacific Railway, and this portion of the population generally patronizes a library constantly, and will find in the efforts of the club women of the city a great deal of encouragement in the work of improvement which many of them have undertaken. A portion of the city hall has been fitted up for a library, and the rooms will be nicely furnished and will be a pleasant place for studious young people to spend their leisure time.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE MACMILLAN CO., NEW YORK.

Who's Who. 1901. An Annual Biographical Dictionary. Fifty-third year of issue. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$.

Maurice Hewlett. A sketch of his career and some review of his books. With portrait.

The Classical Heritage of the Middle Ages. By Henry Osborn Taylor. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$. \$1.75.

Selections from the Southern Poets. Selected and edited by William Lander Weber. $4 \frac{1}{2} \times 5 \frac{1}{2}$. 25.

Chaucer. The Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, The Knights Tale, The Nonnes Prester Tale. Edited by Mark H. Liddell. $4 \frac{1}{2} \times 7$. .60.

The Government of Minnesota. (Handbooks of American Government.) By Frank L. McVey, Ph. D. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$. 75.

Elements of the Theory and Practice of Cookery. By Mary E. Williams and Katharine Rolston Fisher. $5 \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$.

School Management and Methods of Instruction. With special reference to elementary schools. By George Collar, B. A., B. Sc., and Charles W. Crook, B. A., B. Sc. $4 \frac{1}{2} \times 7$.

Experimental Psychology. A Manual of Laboratory Practice. By Edward Bradford Titchener. Volume I. $6 \times 8 \frac{1}{2}$. \$1.60.

Outlines of Educational Doctrine. By John Frederick Herbart. Translated by Alexis F. Lange, Ph. D. Annotated by Charles De Garmo, Ph. D. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$. \$1.25.

History, Prophecy and the Monuments; or, Israel and the Nations. By James Frederick McCurdy, Ph. D., LL. D. Volume III. Completing the work. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 8 \frac{1}{2}$. \$3.00.

The Child: His Nature and Nurture. (The Temple Primers.) By W. B. Drummond, M. B., C. M., M. R. C. P. E. 4×6 . .40.

The Common Sense of Commercial Arithmetic. By George Hall. $4 \frac{1}{2} \times 7$. .60.

A History of Rome. For High Schools and Academies. By George Willis Botford, Ph. D. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.10.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., BOSTON.

The Autobiography of a Journalist. By William James Stillman. In two volumes. Each $6 \times 8 \frac{1}{2}$. \$6.00 a set. A Soldier of Virginia. By Burton Egbert Stevenson. 5×8 . \$1.50.

The Life and Literature of the Ancient Hebrews. By Lyman Abbott. 5×8 . \$2.00.

A Pillar of Salt. By Jeannette Lee. $4 \frac{1}{2} \times 7$. \$1.25. The Turn of the Road. By Eugenia Brooks Frothingham. 5×7 . \$1.50.

The Woodpeckers. By Fannie Hardy Eckstorm. With Illustrations. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$. \$1.00.

Greek Sculpture. (Riverside Art Series.) A Collection of sixteen Pictures of Greek marbles with Introduction and Interpretation by Estelle M. Hurll. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 8 \frac{1}{2}$. .40 net.

King's End. By Alice Brown. $5 \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50. The Light of the World. By Herbert D. Ward. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$. \$1.00.

The Curious Career of Roderick Campbell. By Jean N. McIlwraith. 5×8 . \$1.50.

Dog-Watches at Sea. By Stanton H. King. With Illustrations. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50.

LAIRD & LEE, CHICAGO.

Edison's Handy Encyclopedia of General Information and Universal Atlas. Compiled by Thomas F. Edison, A. M., assisted by Fred T. Bailey and Charles J. Westinghouse. $4 \times 5 \frac{1}{2}$. .50.

Wed by Mighty Waves. A Thrilling Romance of Ill-fated Galveston. By Sue Greenleaf. Illustrated. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$. .75.

The New Century Standard Letter-Writer. By Alfred B. Chambers, Ph. D. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$. .75.

The New Conklin's Handy Manual of Useful Information and World's Atlas. Compiled by Geo. W. Conklin, of the Hamilton University. $4 \times 5 \frac{1}{2}$. .25.

Lee's American Automobile Annual for 1901. Edited by Alfred B. Chambers, Ph. D. Illustrated. $4 \frac{1}{2} \times 6 \frac{1}{2}$.

HENRY HOLT & CO., NEW YORK.

High School History of the United States. With maps, plans, and illustrations. (History of the United States for Schools, by Alexander Johnston, LL. D.) Revised by Winthrop More Daniels, M. A., and William MacDonald, Ph. D. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 8$.

The German and Swiss Settlements of Colonial Pennsylvania: A Study of the So-Called Pennsylvania Dutch. By Oscar Kuhns. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 7 \frac{1}{2}$.

The Rise of the Swiss Republic. A History. By W. D. McCrackan, M. A. Second edition, revised and enlarged. $5 \frac{1}{2} \times 9 \frac{1}{2}$.

Selections from the Poetry of Alexander Pope. Edited with an introduction and notes by Edward Bliss Reed, Ph. D. $4 \frac{1}{2} \times 6 \frac{1}{2}$.

\$10 SECURES \$400.00 LOT

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FREE TRIP TO NEW YORK CITY AND RETURN

\$2,000,000 Insures Your Investment—The Astors' Way of Making Money Made Possible to Small Investors—\$10 Secures \$400 Lot which is Guaranteed to be Worth \$500 Before One Year from Date of Purchase—We Take All Risk—Read Every Word.

THE largest, most reliable, most successful Real Estate Company in the world, Wood, Harmon & Co., of New York City, are so positive that the values of their lots will increase 25 per cent. during the year 1901 that they will guarantee this increase to any investor—in case they cannot show it, they will agree to return all money paid them with 6 per cent. interest. We have one of the grandest opportunities of a lifetime for the small investor to make money—we give as good security as the strongest savings bank and instead of the 4 per cent. interest on deposits we can guarantee over 25 per cent. We thoroughly believe the lot which we now sell for \$400 will in 10 years bring \$4,000, in 20 years from \$20,000 upwards. If you will carefully study this communication you will see our reasons.

The Astors and our wealthiest families have made their money from the increase in value of real estate. You can prove this point if you will take the pains to look it up. New York City property has increased in value more than that of any other place because of its enormous growth in population, and this growth of values and population is still going on. Since the consolidation of New York and Brooklyn, the increased facilities of rapid transit by bridge, trolley, and elevated, the immense tide of increased population has turned Brooklyn-ward. The attention of the public has been called to the great advantages of Brooklyn because it is only in that section that New York can grow—please note that point, as it is the keynote to the situation. The influx of people into Brooklyn is so great as to severely tax Brooklyn Bridge—as a result new bridges are being built (one of which is nearly completed) and tunnels are being dug beneath the East River. Not only is Brooklyn Borough the only section in which New York can grow, but property in old New York City, the same distance from City Hall, would cost 20 to 100 times the money—note that point carefully, it is absolutely true.

Listen to Our Story. It is our business to study conditions existing or possible in the various cities of the United States, and we have aided in the development of 25 different cities. After 12 years' careful study in New York without purchasing, in 1886 we saw the trend of affairs, and before the consolidation of New York and Brooklyn we bought over 1,100 acres of the choicest land in Brooklyn, and which is now in the heart of that Borough. This land is only $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Brooklyn Bridge and is only 35 minutes from New York City Hall. We have over \$2,000,000 invested in this land and are making it one of the most beautiful spots in New York. The growth of the city, together with our improvements, has increased the value of the property over 25 per cent. since a year ago, and we feel so sure that the increase will be at least the same, that we think there is no risk in guaranteeing it.

Listen to Our Proposition. Our property is improved in exact accordance with City Specifications. Streets 60, 80, and 100 feet wide, built to City grade, bordered on each side by 5 feet granolithic cementine sidewalks, flower beds and shrubbery, city water, gas, etc., all at our expense. For \$10 down and \$1.50 per week or \$6.00 per month we sell you a regular New York City lot, subject to the following guarantees from us:

If at the expiration of the year 1901 this lot is not worth \$500.00 based on the price at which our corps of salesmen will then be selling similar land, we will refund all of the money you have paid us with 6 per cent. interest additional.

If you should die at any time before payments have been completed we will give to your heirs a deed to the lot without further cost. If you should get out of employment or be sick you will not forfeit the land. Titles are guaranteed to us by the Title Guarantee & Trust Co. of New York.

Our Guaranteed Increase. Our guarantee of 25 per cent. increase in one year in the value of lots is a simple one and should not be misunderstood or misconstrued. It means that the regular prices publicly marked on our property (every unsold lot being plainly tagged and priced), and at which our large corps of salesmen will be then selling these lots, will be 25 per cent. in excess of the prices at which we now offer them.

It does not mean that we can or will assume the responsibility of selling customers' lots except incidental to our business of development, or that we will take them off their hands; this obviously would be impossible in the great work of development we are undertaking. This is intended as a straight business agreement of an honest increase in value and that only.

N. B. Our non-forfeiture agreement prevents the loss of your lot from misfortune.

Note Our References. The Commercial Agencies, 20 National Banks, and 30,000 customers all over the United States, and especially the ones at the bottom of this page; this is only one of a thousand.

You will note three distinct points of advantage in this proposition. First—it is a Life Insurance for your family. Second—it enables you to pay in small sums as you would in your savings bank, and cannot cramp you; and, Third—it enables you to participate in the great growth of values in New York real estate which are due to natural conditions; and, furthermore, the three advantages are absolutely without risk.

FREE TRIP TO NEW YORK. As a further guarantee of good faith, we agree with all persons living East of Chicago to pay you in cash the cost of your railroad fare to New York and return if you visit our property and find one word of this advertisement a misrepresentation, or in case you buy to credit cost of the trip to you on your purchase; to those living farther away than Chicago we will pay that proportion equal to cost of fare to Chicago and return. We would advise you, if you are satisfied, to send first payment \$10 in cash at our risk immediately, and we will select the very best lot for you. Or, if you desire further particulars, to write immediately for maps, details, and information. It will cost you nothing to find out and thoroughly satisfy yourself—we solicit closest investigation. References by hundreds—our reputation is national.

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The following testimonial was given us by The Nassau National Bank of Brooklyn:

"There is no doubt the property offered by Wood, Harmon & Co. in the Twenty-ninth Ward represents one of the best investments a man of limited income can possibly make within the corporate limits of Greater New York. It can be said without hesitancy that Wood, Harmon & Co. are perfectly reliable, and are worthy the fullest confidence of the investor, whether he resides in Greater New York or any other section of the United States."

THE NASSAU NATIONAL BANK OF BROOKLYN."

THE ABBEY PRESS, NEW YORK.

The Globe Mutiny. By William Lay and Cyrus M. Hussey. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. .75.
 A Priest and a Woman. By Landis Ayr. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.00.
 The Temper Cure. By Stanley Edwards Johnson. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. .50.
 The Stranger. By Mattie Balch Loring. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.00.
 The N'th Foot in War. By M. B. Stewart, First Lieutenant, U. S. A. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.00.
 Three Fair Philanthropists. By Alice M. Muzzy. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.50.
 What is the Matter with the Church? By Frederick Stanley Root. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.00.
 The Vengeance of the Mob. A Tale of the Florida Pines. By Sam. A. Hamilton. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.00.

D. C. HEATH & CO., BOSTON.

The French Subjunctive Mood. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) A Brief Inductive Treatise with Exercises. By Charles C. Clarke, Jr. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$.
 Soll und Haben. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Von Gustav Freytag. Abridged and Edited with introduction and notes by George T. Files, Ph. D. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. .65.
 A Short Introduction to the Literature of the Bible. By Richard G. Moulton, M. A., Ph. D. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 7$. \$1.00.

JENNINGS & PYE, CINCINNATI.

Light Through Darkened Windows. A "Shut-In" Story. By Arabel Wilbur Alexander. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.00.
 The Church of Pentecost. By Bishop J. M. Thoburn. Revised Edition. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. .50 net.
 Junior Praises. For use in Junior Societies and on Special Occasions. Edited by J. M. Black. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. .20.
 The Soul: Its Origin and Relation to the Body; to the World; and to Immortality. By E. T. Collins, M. D. In two parts. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50.

LONGMANS, GREEN & CO., NEW YORK.

The French Revolution. A Sketch. By Shailer Mathews, A. M. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$.
 The Human Nature Club. An Introduction to the Study of Mental Life. By Edward Thorndike, Ph. D. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$.
 Lysbeth. A Tale of the Dutch. By H. Rider Haggard. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50.

R. P. PENNO, NEW YORK.

The Heart of Danger. By Percy White. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50.
 A Missing Hero. By Mrs. Alexander. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50.
 Clayton Halowell. By Francis W. van Praag. Illustrations by Winthrop Earle. $5 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.50.

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON.

Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1898-99. Volume II. $6 \times 9\frac{1}{2}$.
 Report of the Census of Porto Rico, 1899. Lt.-Col. J. P. Sanger, Inspector-General, Director. Henry Gannett, Walter F. Wilcox, Statistical Experts. $6 \times 9\frac{1}{2}$.

INDIAN RIGHTS ASSOCIATION, PHILADELPHIA.

The Eighteenth Annual Report of the Executive Committee of the Indian Rights Association, for the year ending December 15, 1900. Pamphlet.
 The Condition of the Mission Indians of Southern California. By Constance Goddard DuBois. Pamphlet.

DOUBLEDAY, PAGE & CO., NEW YORK.

Newest England. Notes of a democratic traveler in New Zealand, with some Australian comparisons. By Henry Demarest Lloyd. 6×9 . \$2.50.
 A King's Pawn. By Hamilton Drummond. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.50.
 The Octopus. A Story of California. By Frank Norris. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 8$. \$1.50.

R. H. RUSSELL, NEW YORK.

Stage Lyrics. By Harry B. Smith. With Illustrations by Archie Gunn, Ray Brown, and E. W. Kemble. 6×9 .
 Weber and Field's Pictorial Souvenir. By Archie Gunn. 9×12 .

THE ADVANCE PUBLISHING CO., CHICAGO.

Born to Serve. By Charles M. Sheldon. $5\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. .50.
 Who Killed Joe's Baby? By Charles M. Sheldon. $4\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$. Paper, .10.

THE AMERICAN THRESHERMAN, MADISON, WISCONSIN.

The Childhood of Ji-shib, the Ojibwa. With sixty-four pen sketches. By Albert Ernest Jenks, Ph. D. $6 \times 7\frac{1}{2}$. \$1.00.

WINN & JUDSON, CLEVELAND.

Western Reserve University Catalogue. 1900-1901. Vol. IV., No. 1. January, 1901. Annual Subscriptions, 50 cents.

THOMAS Y. CROWELL & CO., NEW YORK.

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